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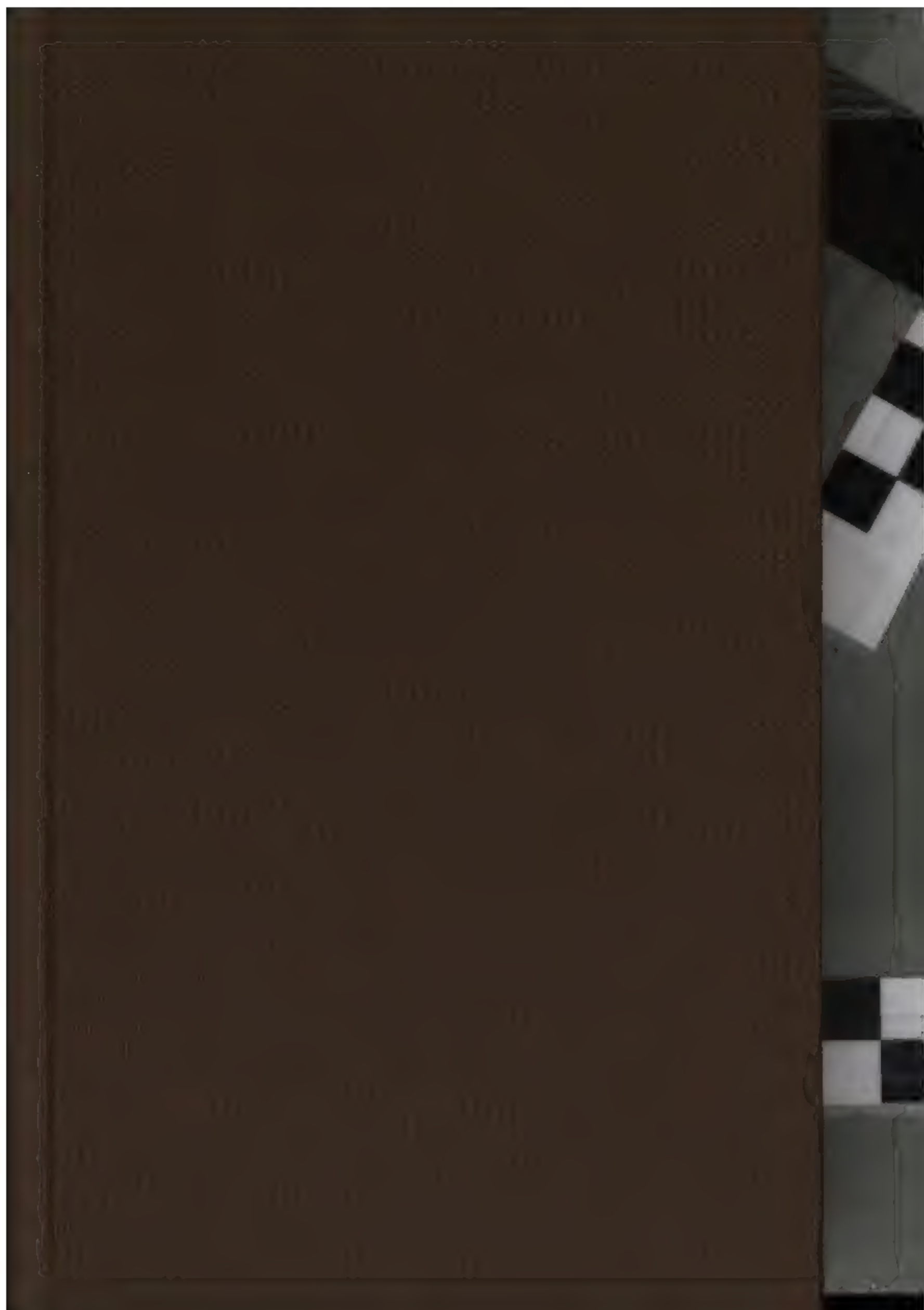
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"Hæc scripsi non olli abundantius, sed amoris erga te." Cic. *Epist.*

VOLUME XC



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T A B L E

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review, — see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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ERRATA in Vol. XC,

- Page 14. line 1. for 'varieties,' read *vanities*.
57. l. 25. for 'Pickwood,' read *Pickford*.
97. l. 34-5. for 'quantity,' read *quality*.
230. l. 50. for 'rest rain,' read *restrain*.
254. l. 13. put a comma after 'disfigured.'
266. l. 26. for 'excitandem,' read *excitandam*.
290. l. 24. for 'call,' read *canal*.
354. Note after 'a half,' add, *per week*.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1819.

ART. I. *Letters from the Hon. Horace Walpole to George Montagu, Esq.; from the Year 1736 to the Year 1770. Now first published from the Originals, in the Possession of the Editor.* 4to. pp. 446. 2l. 2s. Boards. Rodwell and Martin, and Colburn. 1818.

ART. II. *Letters from the Hon. Horace Walpole to the Rev. Wm. Cole, and others; from the Year 1745 to the Year 1782. Now first published from the Originals, in the British Museum.* 4to. pp. 259. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Rodwell and Co., &c.

IT is evident that Horace Walpole cast a fearful and prophetic eye on the future destiny of his letters: since in one of them, addressed to Mr. Cole, he says, speaking of the extant race of authors, "None of us are of any consequence: a page in a great author humbles me to the dust, and the conversation of those that are not superior to myself reminds me of what will be thought of myself. I blush to flatter them or to be flattered by them, and *should dread letters being published some time or other*, in which they should relate our interviews, and we should appear like those puny conceited witlings in Shenstone's and Hugh's Correspondence, who give themselves airs from being in possession of the soil of Parnassus for the time being; as peers are proud because they enjoy the estates of great men who went before them." (Page 91.)

We cannot easily be induced to regard the careless chit-chat letters of eminent men as public property: nor can we by any means consider ourselves as intitled to sit in judgment on scraps, notes, and memorandums found in ransacking the port-folios and escritaires of the dead. In the present instance, not the slightest selection appears to have been employed: but every bit of paper with Horace Walpole's name to it, whether announcing that the wind was at east, that the gout had taken hold of his toe, or that his gardener had plucked a tulip or cut a cucumber, is deemed a sufficient passport to public notice. The wisdom is as questionable as the delicacy of thus exposing the confidential and easy gossip of a gentleman, merely because he happens to be a man of letters,

ters, or a man of wit and fashion. The consequence to be anticipated is that such a person, when he writes to his friend, instead of the careless and familiar flow of language, which gives to epistolary correspondence all its interest and charm, will hereafter round his periods for the press, poise his antitheses with laborious accuracy, and rack his brains for tropes, figures, long-drawn metaphors, and compound epithets! Let it not be inferred that we are insensible to the beauties profusely sprinkled through the Letters of Gray, Cowper, and Burns; or that we can read without interest the animated correspondence of Madame du Deffand, Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, the Countesses of Hartford and Pomfret, and some others whose names might be added to the list. Nor certainly shall we deny to Horace Walpole, that "ingenious trifler" as Gibbon somewhere calls him, the praise of being a graceful and lively letter-writer. It is not his fault that he could scarcely send a penny-post note to his tailor, but the precious epistle must be preserved and published: — we complain that the chaff and the corn are brought together to market in the same bushel.

In one of his letters to Mr. Cole, we find Mr. Walpole saying, 'Godfrey the engraver told me yesterday, that Mr. Tyson is dead; I am sorry for it, though he had left me off. A much older friend of mine died yesterday, but of whom I must say the same, George Montagu, whom you must remember at Eton and Cambridge. I should have been exceedingly concerned for him a few years ago, but he had dropped me, partly from politics and partly from caprice, for we had never any quarrel; but he was grown an excessive humourist, and had shed almost all his friends as well as me. He had parts, and infinite vivacity and originality till of late years, and it grieved me much that he had changed towards me after a friendship of between thirty and forty years.'

Attachments formed in early life, before reserve and suspicion have chilled the affections, are so much more endearing than the cautious and heartless friendships of maturer years, that it is indeed grievous to consider the demon of politics or caprice as able ever to disturb them. The long and uninterrupted intercourse which Mr. Walpole cultivated with Mr. Cole, who differed from him, *toto cælo*, in political and religious opinions, must be allowed to exculpate him from the reproach of insensibility or indifference in the present instance. — The correspondence begins between two young men who cultivate an intimacy at college; and the early letters in a more especial manner breathe the ardour, animation, and gaiety of youth. Walpole's Letters are a kaleidoscope; in

which subjects as worthless in themselves as Dr. Brewster's broken shells, and bits of glass, and snips of lace, — a lounge, for instance, at Ranelagh or Vauxhall, a birth-day or a drawing-room, a ridotto at the Haymarket, or a pantomime at Covent-Garden, — fall into endless and beautiful varieties of shape and colour. Those of his later life are not so interesting, because his views in politics, morals, or philosophy, are not profound enough to be accepted in exchange for vivacity of expression and description, and exhaustless anecdote.

Some of the first of the letters to Mr. Montagu were written during the rebellion of 1745, which in course furnished a topic of no ordinary interest: but he writes about it with a strange mixture of levity and compassion:

' Lady Cromartie presented her petition to the King last Sunday. He was very civil to her, but would not at all give her any hopes. She swooned away as soon as he was gone. Lord Cornwallis told me that her lord weeps every time any thing of his fate is mentioned to him. Old Balmerino keeps up his spirits to the same pitch of gaiety. In the cell at Westminster he showed Lord Kilmarnock how he must lay his head; bid him not winch, lest the stroke should cut his skull or his shoulders; and advised him to bite his lips. As they were to return, he begged they might have another bottle together, as they should never meet any more till ———, and then pointed to his neck. At getting into the coach, he said to the jailer, "Take care, or you will break my shins with this damned axe."

' I must tell you a *bon-mot* of George Selwyn's at the trial. He saw Bethel's sharp visage looking wistfully at the rebel lords; he said, "What a shame it is to turn her face to the prisoners till they are condemned." —

' I am assured that the old Countess of Errol made her son Lord Kilmarnock go into the rebellion on pain of disinheriting him. I don't know whether I told you that the man at the tennis-court protests he has known him dine with the man that sells pamphlets at Story's gate; "and," says he, "he would often have been glad if I would have taken him home to dinner." He was certainly so poor, that in one of his wife's intercepted letters she tells him she has plagued their steward for a fortnight for money, and can get but three shillings. Can one help pitying such distress? I am vastly softened too about Balmerino's relapse, for his pardon was only granted him to engage his brother's vote at the election of Scotch peers.

' My Lord Chancellor has had a thousand pounds in present for his high stewardship, and has got the reversion of clerk of the crown (twelve hundred a-year) for his second son. What a long time it will be before his posterity are drove into rebellion for want like Lord Kilmarnock.' —

' I have been this morning at the Tower, and passed under the new heads at Temple-Bar, where people make a trade of letting
B 2 spying.

spying-glasses at a halfpenny a look. Old Lovat arrived last night. I saw Murray, Lord Derwentwater, Lord Traquair, Lord Cromartie and his son, and the Lord Provost, at their respective windows. The other two wretched Lords are in dismal towers, and they have stopped up one of old Balmerino's windows, because he talked to the populace; and now he has only one, which looks directly upon all the scaffolding. They brought in the death-warrant at his dinner. His wife fainted. He said, "Lieutenant, with your damned warrant you have spoiled my lady's stomach." He has written a sensible letter to the Duke to beg his intercession, and the Duke has given it to the King: but gave a much colder answer to Duke Hamilton, who went to beg it for Lord Kilmarnock; he told him the affair was in the King's hands, and that he had nothing to do with it. Lord Kilmarnock, who has hitherto kept up his spirits, grows extremely terrified.'

Kilmarnock was an elegant and accomplished nobleman, and met his fate with less courage but with more decorum than Balmerino, who had been bred to arms, and whose rough bravery led him to view the implements of death with the most contemptuous indifference. Lovat, like Sir Thomas More, could jest with the executioner, and yet he shewed a Roman dignity in his exclamation at the scaffold, "*dulce et decorum est pro patriâ mori.*"

We scarcely know what to think of Horace Walpole's opinion of Gray. His letter from Paris to Mr. Cole, on receiving the intelligence of Gray's death, shews strong feeling, and he was certainly anxious to do *himself* honour by printing Gray's works at Strawberry-Hill. Yet in one of the letters to Mr. Montagu he is mentioned in a manner that we did not expect. 'I agree with you most absolutely in your opinion about Gray; he is the worst company in the world. From a melancholy turn, from living reclusely, and from a little too much dignity, he never converses easily; all his words are measured and chosen, and formed into sentences; his writings are admirable; he himself is not agreeable.'

Was it that, all his anxieties centering in himself, he had no sympathies to waste on those around him, or was it from mere levity and vivaciousness that Walpole scarcely ever mentions the death of any of his multitudinous acquaintance, — and they seem to fall as thick as the heroes and heroines of Tom Thumb, — without a smile on his lips? The death of Lord Waldegrave, however, who married his niece, is feelingly bewailed; the agony of Lord Besborough's sufferings on the loss of his wife and children wrings a note of compassion from the narrator; and the manliness and solemnity with which Lord Ferrers met his execution extort

a momentary

a momentary gravity, though it is soon relieved by a joke. Lord Ferrers went to the gallows in his wedding clothes, 'marking the only remaining impression on his mind,' and this gives occasion to the observation ;

' I suppose every highwayman will now preserve the blue handkerchief he has about his neck when he is married, that he may die like a lord. With all his madness he was not mad enough to be struck with his aunt Huntingdon's sermons. The Methodists have nothing to brag of his conversion, though Whitfield prayed for him, and preached about him. Even Tyburn has been above their reach. I have not heard that Lady Fanny dabbled with his soul; but I believe she is prudent enough to confine her missionary zeal to subjects where the body may be her perquisite.'

Walpole not only was an *indifferentist*, but almost prided himself in being so :

' 'Tis a busy world,' he says, ' and well adapted to those who love to bustle in it. I loved it once; loved its very tempests, — now I barely open my window to view what course the storm takes.' — ' To write pamphlets one must love or hate, and I have the satisfaction of doing neither. I would not be at the trouble of composing a distich to achieve a revolution. 'Tis equal to me what names are on the scene.' — ' On a survey of our situation I comfort myself with saying, " Well what is it to me ?" ' — ' If the Spaniards land in Ireland shall you make the campaign? No, no, come back to England; you and I will not be patriots 'till the Gauls are in the city, and we must take our great chairs and our fasces, and be knocked on the head with decorum in St. James's market.' — ' I live in the world and yet love nothing, care a straw for nothing, but two or three old friends that I have loved these thirty years. — I used to say to myself, Lord! this person is so bad, that person is so bad, I hate them. I have now found out that they are all pretty much alike, and I hate nobody.'

Yet he *loves* a *bon-mot*, and not the less for its being at the expence of a bishop :

' Though I have little to say, it is worth while to write, only to tell you two *bon-mots* of Quin, to that turn-coat hypocrite infidel, Bishop W—b—n. That saucy priest was haranguing at Bath in behalf of prerogative: Quin said, " Pray, my Lord, spare me, you are not acquainted with my principles, I am a republican; and perhaps I even think that the execution of Charles the First might be justified." — " Aye!" said W—b—n, " by what law?" Quin replied, " *By all the laws he had left them.*" The Bishop would have got off upon judgments, and bade the player remember that all the regicides came to violent ends; a lie, but no matter. " *I would not advise your Lordship,*" said Quin, " *to make use of that inference, for if I am not mistaken, that was the case of the twelve apostles.*" There was great wit *ad hominem* in

the latter reply, but I think the former equal to any thing I ever heard. It is the sum of the whole controversy couched in eight monosyllables, and comprehends at once the King's guilt and the justice of punishing it. The more one examines it, the finer it proves. One can say nothing after it, so good night.'

Take another: 'The Canton of Berne ordered all the impressions of Helvetius's *Esprit* and Voltaire's *Pucelle* to be seized. The officer of justice employed by them came into the council and said, "*Magnifiques Seigneurs, après toutes les recherches possibles, on n'a pu trouver dans toute la ville que très peu de l'Esprit, et pas une Pucelle.*"' — A hundred specimens present themselves of the utmost felicity of description, and the difficulty is which to select.

The death of Geo. II. and the accession of Geo. III. are thus related:

'(Oct. 25. 1760.) — The King went to bed well last night, rose at six this morning as usual, looked, I suppose, if all his money was in his purse, and called for his chocolate. A little after seven, he went into the water-closet; the German valet de chambre heard a noise, listened, heard something like a groan, ran in, and found the hero of Oudenard and Dettingen on the floor, with a gash on his right temple, by falling against the corner of a bureau. He tried to speak, could not, and expired. Princess Emily was called, found him dead, and wrote to the Prince.' —

'(Oct. 28.) — The new reign dates with great propriety and decency; the civilest letter to Princess Emily, the greatest kindness to the Duke; the utmost respect to the dead body. No changes to be made but those absolutely necessary, as the household, &c. — and what some will think the most unnecessary, in the representative of power. There are but two new cabinet counsellors named; the Duke of York, and Lord Bute, so it must be one of them. The Princess does not remove to St. James's, so I don't believe it will be she. To-day England kissed hands, so did I, and it is more comfortable to kiss hands with all England, than to have all England ask why one kisses hands. Well! my virtue is safe; I had a gracious reception, and yet I am almost as impatient to return to Strawberry, as I was to leave it on the news. There is great dignity and grace in the King's manner. I don't say this, like my dear Madame de Sevigné, because he was civil to me, but the part is well acted. If they do as well behind the scenes, as upon the stage, it will be a very complete reign. Hollinshed, or Baker, would think it begins well: that is, begins ill; it has rained without intermission, and yesterday there came a cargo of bad news, all which, you know, are similar omens to a man, who writes history upon the information of the clouds. Berlin is taken by the Prussians, the hereditary Prince beaten by the French. Poor Lord Downe has had three wounds. He and your brother's Billy Pitt are prisoners.

Johnny

Johnny Waldegrave was shot through the hat and through the coat; and would have been shot through the body, if he had had any. Irish Johnson is wounded in the hand; Ned Harvey somewhere; and Prince Ferdinand mortally in his reputation for sending this wild detachment. — The parliament is prorogued till the day it was to have met; the will is not opened; what can I tell you more? Would it be news that all is hopes and fears, and that great lords look as if they dreaded wanting bread? would this be news? believe me, it all grows stale soon. I had not seen such a sight these three-and-thirty years: I came eagerly to town; I laughed for three days: I am tired already. Good night!

The account of the funeral of the departed King is excellent: the grave and the ludicrous, the solemn and the satirical, instead of being neutralized by an ill-judged mixture, are so dexterously arranged and contrasted as to heighten, like light and shadow in a picture, the effect of each other. For colours, Horace Walpole dips his pencil in the rainbow; as to sentiment, he has none of it. The description of Houghton is a solitary specimen of melancholy musing:

‘ Here I am at Houghton! and alone! in this spot, where (except two hours last month) I have not been in sixteen years! Think, what a crowd of reflections! No, Gray, and forty churchyards, could not furnish so many: nay, I know one must feel them with greater indifference, than I possess, to have patience to put them into verse. Here I am, probably for the last time of my life, though not for the last time, every clock that strikes tells me I am an hour nearer to yonder church — that church, into which I have not yet had courage to enter, where lies that mother on whom I doated, and who doated on me! There are the two rival mistresses of Houghton, neither of whom ever wished to enjoy it! There too lies he, who founded its greatness, to contribute to whose fall Europe was embroiled; there he sleeps in quiet and dignity, while his friend and his foe, rather his false ally and real enemy, N———e, and B———h, are exhausting the dregs of their pitiful lives in squabbles and pamphlets.

‘ The surprise the pictures gave me is again renewed; accustomed for many years to see nothing but wretched daubs and varnished copies at auctions, I look at these as enchantment. My own description of them seems poor; but shall I tell you truly, the majesty of Italian ideas almost sinks before the warm nature of Flemish colouring; alas! don't I grow old? My young imagination was fired with Guido's ideas; must they be plump and prominent as Abishag to warm me now? Does great youth feel with poetic limbs, as well as see with poetic eyes? In one respect I am very young, I cannot satiate myself with looking: an incident contributed to make me feel this more strongly. A party arrived, just as I did, to see the house, a man and three

women in riding dresses, and they rode post through the apartments. I could not hurry before them fast enough; they were not so long in seeing for the first time, as I could have been in one room, to examine what I knew by heart. I remember formerly being often diverted with this kind of *seers*; they come, ask what such a room is called, in which Sir Robert lay, write it down, admire a lobster or a cabbage in a market-piece, dispute whether the last room was green or purple, and then hurry to the inn for fear the fish should be over-dressed. How different my sensations! not a picture here but recalls a history; not one, but I remember in Downing-Street or Chelsea, where queens and crowds admired them, though seeing them as little as these travellers!

Contrast this with the inimitable sprightliness, the ease; and the graceful gaiety of the following:

‘ Strawberry-Hill is grown a perfect Paphos; it is the land of beauties. On Wednesday the Dutchesses of Hamilton and Richmond, and Lady Ailesbury dined there, the two latter staid all night. There never was so pretty a sight as to see them all three sitting in the shell; a thousand years hence, when I begin to grow old, if that can ever be, I shall talk of that event, and tell young people how much handsomer the women of my time were than they will be then: “I shall say women alter now; I remember Lady Ailesbury looking handsomer than her daughter, the pretty Dutchess of Richmond, as they were sitting in the shell on my terrace with the Dutchess of Hamilton, one of the famous Gunninga.” Yesterday t’other more famous Gunning dined there. She has made a friendship with my charming niece, to disguise her jealousy of the new Countess’s beauty: there were they two, their Lords, Lord Buckingham, and Charlotte. You will think that I did not chuse men for my parties so well as women. I don’t include Lord Waldegrave in this bad election.’—

‘ I am just come out of the garden in the most oriental of all evenings, and from breathing odours beyond those of Araby. The acacias, which the Arabians have the sense to worship, are covered with blossoms, the honey-suckles dangle from every tree in festoons, the seringas are thickets of sweets, and the new cut hay in the field tempers the balmy gales with simple freshness, while a thousand sky-rockets launched into the air at Ranelagh or Marybone illuminate the scene, and give it an air of Haroun Alraschid’s paradise. I was not quite so content by daylight, some foreigners dined here, and though they admired our verdure, it mortified me by its brownness; we have not had a drop of rain this month to cool the tip of our daisies.’—

‘ The kingdom of beauty is in as great disorder as the kingdom of Ireland. My Lady Pembroke looks like a ghost—poor Lady Coventry is going to be one; and the Dutchess of Hamilton is so altered I did not know her. Indeed, she is big with child, and so big, that, as my Lady Northumberland says, it is plain she has a camel in her belly. That Countess has been laid up
with

with a hurt in her leg; Lady Rachel Percy pushed her on the birth-night against a bench; the Dutchess of Grafton asked if it was true that Lady Rachel kicked her? "Kick me, Madam! when did you ever hear of a Percy that took a kick?" I can tell you another anecdote of that house, that will not divert you less. Lord March making them a visit this summer at Alnwick-castle, my Lord received him at the gate, and said, "I believe, my Lord, this is the first time that ever a Douglas and a Percy met here in friendship." Think of this from a Smithson to a true Douglas.

'I don't trouble my head about any connection; any news into the country I know is welcome, though it comes out higle-pigledy, just as it happens to be packed up. The cry in Ireland has been against Lord Hillsborough, supposing him to mediate an union of the two islands; George Selwyn, seeing him set t'other night between my Lady H——— and Lord B———, said, "Who can say that my Lord Hillsborough is not an enemy to an union!"

Thus it is; every page presents a lively anecdote of the fashionable and high characters of the day, a sneer, a satire, or a song. We may say that the tide of Walpole's spirits knows no ebb; and indeed the perusal of his letters reminds us of walking on the sea-shore: before the sun and wind have dried and dimmed the pebbles which the last wave left, another overflows them and renews their lustre.

Mr. Walpole had a sufficiently good opinion of himself, which he faintly disguises under the gossamer veil of humility, when writing to his friends about his own works. It is surely a legitimate inference that a man thinks better of himself than it is decent to profess, when he speaks scornfully of every body else. It may not be surprising that he held the Society of Antiquaries, individually as well as *en masse*, in contempt — for he was an antiquary himself.

'The best merit of the Society lies in their prints; for their volumes, no mortal will ever touch them but an antiquary. Their Saxon and Danish discoveries are not worth more than monuments of the Hottentots, and for Roman remains in Britain, they are upon a foot with what ideas we should get of Inigo Jones, if somebody was to publish views of huts and houses that our officers run up at Senegal and Goree. Bishop Lyttleton used to torment me with barrows and Roman camps, and I would as soon have attended to the turf-graves in our church-yards. I have no curiosity to know how awkward and clumsy men have been in the dawn of arts, or in their decay.'

This may be very good sense: but what can we think of the arrogance which could dictate the following paragraph: 'All the Scotch metaphysicians have sent me their works. I did

did not read one of them, *because I do not understand what is not understood by those that write about it*, and I did not get acquainted with one of the writers.' Not having a head for metaphysics himself, the pearl being beyond the shallow depth of his own diving, he must fancy that it lies in unfathomable waters! 'I should like to be intimate with Mr. Anstey, even though he wrote Lord Buckhorse, or with the author of the Heroic Epistle. — I have no thirst to know the rest of my cotemporaries, from the absurd bombast of Dr. Johnson down to the *silly* Dr. Goldsmith; though the latter changeling has had bright gleams of parts, and the former had sense till he changed it for words, and sold it for a pension.' This is cutting enough, and contemptuous enough; and it is politically true if critically false.

If any person has a curiosity to know the origin of "The Castle of Otranto," here it is, as stated to Mr. Cole:

' Shall I confess to you what was the origin of this romance? I waked one morning, in the beginning of last June, from a dream, of which, all I could recover was, that I had thought myself in an ancient castle, (a very natural dream for a head filled like mine with gothic story,) and that on the uppermost bannister of a great staircase I saw a gigantic hand in armour. In the evening I sat down, and began to write, without knowing in the least what I intended to say or relate. The work grew on my hands, and I grew fond of it — add, that I was very glad to think of any thing, rather than politics. In short, I was so engrossed with my tale, which I completed in less than two months, that one evening, I wrote from the time I had drunk my tea, about six o'clock, till half an hour after one in the morning, when my hand and fingers were so weary, that I could not hold the pen to finish the sentence, but left Matilda and Isabella talking, in the middle of a paragraph.'

Mr. Walpole was exceedingly partial to Strawberry-Hill, and seemed never so happy as when he was picking up an old portrait, a bit of painted glass, or some antique whimsicality, for its decoration. It is pleasant to hear him thus fondly talking of his plans:

' My bower is determined, but not at all what it is to be. Tho' I write romances, I cannot tell how to build all that belongs to them. Madame Danois, in the Fairy Tales, used to *tapestry* them with *jonquils*; but as that furniture will not last above a fortnight in the year, I shall prefer something more huckaback. I have decided that the outside shall be of *treillage*, which, however, I shall not commence, till I have again seen some of old Louis's old fashioned *Galanteries*, at Versailles. Rosamond's bower, you, and I, and Tom Hearne know, was a labyrinth: but as my territory will admit of a very short clue, I lay aside all thoughts of a mazy habitation: tho' a bower is very different from
an

an arbour, and must have more chambers than one. In short, I both know, and don't know, what it should be. I am almost afraid I must go and read Spenser, and wade thro' his allegories, and drawling stanzas, to get at a picture. But, good night! you see how one gossips, when one is alone, and at quiet on one's own dunghill! — Well! it may be trifling; yet it is such trifling as ambition never is happy enough to know! ambition orders palaces, but it is content that chats for a page or two over a bower.'

He complains somewhere of the severity of the winter, which had made terrible havoc among his evergreens, though of old standing: 'Half my cypresses have been bewitched and turned into brooms, and the laurustinus is every where perished. I am Goth enough to choose now and then to believe in prognostics; and I hope this destruction imports that, though foreigners should take root here, they cannot last in this climate. I would fain persuade myself that we are to be our own empire to eternity.' These and such as these are sparkles carelessly struck from the immediate subject of his thoughts, of considerable beauty and brilliancy.

It would be ridiculous to speak of Mr. Walpole's religious opinions: 'Church and Presbytery,' he says, are 'human nonsense invented by knaves to govern fools. Church and King are terms for monopolies. *Exalted notions* of church-matters are contradictions in terms to the lowliness and humility of the Gospel. There is nothing sublime but the Divinity; nothing sacred but as his work.' — 'I like Popery as well as you, and have shewn I do. I like it, as I like chivalry and romance. They all furnish one with ideas and visions which Presbyterianism does not. A Gothic church or a convent fills one with romantic dreams, but for the mysterious, the church in the abstract, it is a jargon that means nothing or a great deal too much, and I reject it and its apostles, from Athanasius to Bishop Keene.' It is to be observed that this is addressed to a very learned, reverend, and sincere divine; and it is not a little to the credit of both parties, as before remarked, that, with sentiments diametrically opposite on matters of politics and religion, they passed fifty years in friendly correspondence and in the uninterrupted interchange of kind offices. Yet David Hume could not have entertained more bitter feelings against the priesthood.

Another good trait in the character of Walpole is repeatedly illustrated in these letters; namely, his jealousy for the honour and integrity of his father. He writhes under every attack on Sir Robert's character, with true filial indignation; and, though he feels or affects the utmost indifference towards his

his own personal assailants, he never suffers those of his father to escape with impunity. To this laudable earnestness in vindicating Sir Robert's memory, we are indebted for a very curious historical morçeau :

‘ In the accounts of Lady Chesterfield's death and fortune, it is said that the late king, at the instigation of Sir R. W. burnt his father's will, which contained a large legacy to that his supposed daughter, and I believe his real one, for she was very like him, as her brother, General Schulembourg, is in black to the late king. The fact of suppressing the will is indubitably true, the instigator most false, as I can demonstrate thus : —

‘ When the news arrived of the death of George the First, my father carried the account from Lord Townshend to the then Prince of Wales. One of the first acts of royalty is for the new monarch to make a speech to the privy council. Sir Robert asked the King who he would please to have draw the speech, which was, in fact, asking, who was to be prime minister ; to which His Majesty replied — Sir Spencer Compton. It is a wonderful anecdote, and but little known, that the new premier, a very dull man, could not draw the speech, and the person to whom he applied was the deposed premier. The Queen, who favoured my father, observed how unfit a man was for successor, who was reduced to beg assistance of his predecessor. The council met as soon as possible, the next morning at latest. There Archbishop Wake, with whom one copy of the will had been deposited, (as another was, I think, with the Duke of Wolfenbuttle, who had a pension for sacrificing it, which, *I know*, the late Duke of Newcastle transacted,) advanced, and delivered the will to the King, who put it into his pocket, and went out of council without opening it, the Archbishop not having courage or presence of mind to desire it to be read, as he ought to have done.

‘ These circumstances, which I solemnly assure you are strictly true, prove that my father neither advised, nor was consulted ; nor is it credible that the King in one night's time should have passed from the intention of disgracing him, to make him his bosom confident on so delicate an affair.

‘ I was once talking to the late Lady Suffolk, the former mistress, on that extraordinary event. She said, “ I cannot justify the deed to the legatees, but towards his father the late King was justifiable ; for George the First had burnt two wills made in favour of George the Second.” I suppose they were the testaments of the Duke and Dutchess of Zell, parents of George the First's wife, whose treatment of her they always resented.

‘ I said, *I know* the transaction of the Duke of N. The late Lord Waldegrave shewed me a letter from that Duke to the first Earl of Waldegrave, then ambassador at Paris, with directions about that transaction, or, at least, about payment of the pension, I forget which. I have somewhere, but cannot turn to it now, a memorandum of that affair, and who the Prince was, whom I may

mistake in calling Duke of Wolfenbüttele. There was a third copy of the will, I likewise forget with whom deposited.

'The newspaper says, which is true, that Lord Chesterfield filed a bill in chancery against the late King to oblige him to produce the will, and was silenced, I think, by payment of 20,000*l.* There was another legacy to his own daughter, the Queen of Prussia, which has at times been, and, I believe, is still claimed by the King of Prussia.'

As Mr. Walpole was not only an author but a "noble author," at a time too when these birds were much rarer than they are now, he was, in course, abundantly complimented on the boldness of his flight, the beauty of his plumage, and the variety of his song. Though not insensible to flattery, when gracefully and delicately conferred, he rejected the libation when too copious or too potent. In reply to some extravagant panegyric, honestly offered by Mr. Cole, who had called him one of the greatest characters of the age; he says, 'Mine a great character! Mercy on me! I am a composition of Anthony Wood and Madame Danois, and I know not what trumpery writers. This is the least I can say to refute your panegyric, which I shall burn presently, for I will not have such an encomiastic letter found in my possession, lest I should seem to have been pleased with it.' He was a cynic towards almost all living authors; and, in this unnatural warfare, he lays about him with the tomahawk and scalping-knife of an American Indian. He was nevertheless perfectly conscious of the frivolity of his own favourite pursuits and amusements, in collecting the *nugæ antiquæ*, the rarities, and nicknackatories of every virtuoso within reach. Even his favourite press at Strawberry-Hill whispered to him a secret, to which he might perhaps lend a reluctant ear, but to which he had too much good sense to turn a deaf one. Mr. Cole had intimated that he ought to present a set of the "Anecdotes of Painting" to Cambridge. 'Unluckily,' says he, 'I did not keep any number back of the two first volumes, and literally have none but those I reserved for myself. Of the third, and the volume of Engravers, I have two or three. Of my fourth I have printed six hundred; *but, as they can be had*, I believe not a third part is sold. This is a very plain lesson to me, that my editions sell for their curiosity, and not for any merit in them. And so they would, if I printed Mother Goose's Tales, and but a few of them.'

It must be conceded to those who argue for the publication of private correspondence, that we see more of the interior of a man by his letters than by any thing else, his conversation scarcely excepted. They disclose the source and current

rent of his thoughts, his secret varieties, his conscious weaknesses: they are a sort of glass-hive, a panopticon exhibiting all the workings of his mind, whether for evil or for good. While, however, it is this which gives an interest to the trifles that they contain, it is this also which imposes on the editor of a posthumous correspondence the utmost scrupulousness and delicacy. Several of the letters before us, to the credit of the writer, are very insignificant; to his credit, because, writing to a friend, he did not wait for the provocative of a subject on which he might dissert: he said "the first thing that came uppermost," and filled his sheet with the chapter of accidents, — and an amusing chapter it always is.

ART. III. *Personal Narrative of Travels to the Equinoctial Regions of the New Continent*, during the Years 1799—1804, by Alexander de Humboldt and Aimé Bonpland; with Maps, Plans, &c. written in French by Alexander de Humboldt, and translated into English by Helen Maria Williams. Vol. IV. 8vo. pp. 575. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

IN our Number for March last, we noticed the preceding volume of M. Humboldt's Travels. The first part of the present is devoted to an account of the earthquakes at Caraccas, in which the author endeavours to prove their connection with the volcanic eruptions in the West-India islands. The phænomena that preceded or accompanied the oscillations of the earth, by which the cities of Caraccas, La Guayra, San Felipe, and Merida, with various towns, were almost entirely destroyed, and many thousand inhabitants, on the 26th of March, 1812, were similar to those which accompanied the destruction of Lisbon, Messina, and Lima; and M. de H. passes them over with brief notice: his principal object being, as he expresses it, to trace 'the physical relations which link volcanoes together, the influence of one volcanic system on another, the connection that manifests itself between the action of burning mountains, and the commotions which shake the earth at great distances, during a long time, in the same direction.' To understand the tendency of the author's inferences from the facts which he presents to our notice, it may be useful to state that Werner, and certain other geologists, have derived the origin of volcanoes from local and accidental causes, operating near the surface of the globe; such as the accidental ignition of strata of coal or pyrites: but these causes M. de Humboldt properly regards as altogether inadequate to explain the extent and duration of volcanic phænomena,

nomena, and the simultaneous motions which affect distant parts of the globe during volcanic eruptions. — In his preceding volumes, he stated his opinion that volcanoes are not insulated phænomena, but that numerous volcanoes situated at great distances from each other form one volcanic system, viz. they are openings connected with one vast gulph, over which they are placed; or, to speak more familiarly, are chimnies belonging to one furnace. Thus he supposes that Etna, Vesuvius, and the Eolian islands, belong to one system; the volcanoes being openings in different parts of the crust that covers one immense gulph. The Canary Islands likewise are placed (he says) over one and the same submarine volcano; the fire of which, since the last century, has made its appearance alternately in Palma, Teneriffe, and Lancerota. Indeed, he remarks, it appears probable that the whole of the higher part of the province of Quito, and the neighbouring Cordilleras, far from being a groupe of distinct volcanoes, constitute a single swollen mass, an enormous volcanic wall, stretching from north to south, the crust of which exhibits a surface of more than six hundred square leagues. Cotopaxi, Tunguraguà, Antisana, and Pichincha, are placed on this same vault. They are differently named, although they are only different parts of the same volcanic mass; the fire issuing sometimes from one and sometimes from another of these summits; and he considers the fire as being continually active under the whole mass. In conformity with this view, he regards the volcanoes of St. Vincent, Lucia, Guadaloupe, and other volcanic islands in the West Indies, as belonging to one system. These volcanic islands, he says, form one-fifth of that great arch extending from the coast of Paria to the peninsula of Florida; they are the eastern border of the West-Indian archipelago. The greater West-India islands appear, according to him, like remains of a groupe of primitive mountains.

The ‘*systems of volcanoes*,’ enumerated by M. de Humboldt, are sufficiently appalling to the imagination: but he farther supposes that these immense fiery gulphs, situated in distant quarters of the globe, have also a connection with each other; and he adduces many striking and interesting facts in support of this opinion.

‘At my arrival in Terra Firma, I was struck with the connection of two physical events, the destruction of Cumana on the 14th of December, 1797, and the eruption of the volcanoes in the smaller West-India islands. This connection has been again manifested in the destruction of Caraccas on the 26th of March, 1812. The volcano of Guadaloupe seemed to have re-acted, in 1797, on the coasts of Cumana. Fifteen years after, it was a volcano
situate

and Kentucky. They were accompanied by a great subterraneous noise, coming from the south-west. At the spots between New Madrid and Little Prairie, as at the Saline, north of Cincinnati, in latitude $37^{\circ} 45'$, the shocks were felt every day, nay almost every hour, during several months. The whole of these phenomena lasted from the 16th of December, 1811, till the year 1813. The commotion, confined at first to the south, in the valley of the lower Mississippi, appeared to advance slowly toward the north.

‘At the same period, when this long series of earthquakes began in the Transallegheanian States, in the month of December, 1811, the town of Caraccas felt the first shock in calm and serene weather. This coincidence of phenomena was probably not accidental; for we must not forget, that, notwithstanding the distance which separates these countries, the low grounds of Louisiana, and the coasts of Venezuela and Cumana, belong to the same basin, that of the Gulf of Mexico.’

‘When we reflect’ (he adds) ‘that the great earthquake at Lisbon of the 1st of November, 1755, was felt almost at the same moment on the coasts of Sweden, at Lake Ontario, and at the island of Martinico, it will not appear too daring to suppose, that all the basin of the West Indies, from Cumana and Caraccas, as far as the plains of Louisiana, may be simultaneously agitated by commotions, proceeding from the same centre of action.’

It must be obvious to the most superficial reader, whose judgment is not influenced by theory, that the centre of action is placed at a vast depth beneath the surface; and it may be farther remarked that, in countries frequently agitated by earthquakes, the noises which precede the oscillations, as well as the oscillations themselves, advance in a certain direction. M. de Humboldt has, however, stated a very interesting fact, namely, that along the line of the shock there are certain situations in which the oscillations are scarcely felt.

‘This phenomenon (he observes) is frequently remarked in Peru and Mexico, in earthquakes which have followed during ages a determinate direction. The inhabitants of the Andes say with simplicity, speaking of an intermediary ground, which is not affected by the general motion, “that it forms a bridge,” (*que hace puente*,) as if they meant to indicate by the expression, that the undulations are propagated at an immense depth, under an inert rock.’ Doubtless, the cause of this interruption must be sought in the structure of the crust of the globe, certain parts presenting a greater resistance to the shock than others. The earthquake which destroyed Caraccas was felt in the provinces of Venezuela, Varinas, and Marycabo, along the coast; and the violence of the shock was principally directed in a line E.N.E., and W.S.W., from La Guayra and Caraccas to the lofty mountains of Niquitao and Merida in the interior. It was felt in the kingdom of

New Grenada, as far as Santa Fé de Bagota, one hundred and eighty leagues from Caraccas; and it was every where more violent in the mountains of gneiss and mica slate than in the plains. M. de H. says that the mountains called primitive in these regions are more particularly the seats of volcanic fires, and of hot springs; contrary to the theory of those geologists, who place the seat of these phenomena among the upper secondary rocks containing coal.

One of the most remarkable circumstances connected with volcanic phenomena in the New World is, that subterranean explosions are heard at great distances from volcanic eruptions, and in situations not affected at the time by any oscillation of the earth. We do not mean by these explosions the rumbling noise, more or less loud, which commonly precedes the shock of an earthquake, but loud and repeated reports similar to the discharge of artillery, to which the natives of the New World give the name of *Bramida*. Even in many parts of North America, such noises are frequently heard in the mountains, unaccompanied by any other volcanic phenomena. The following account of these subterranean explosions is particularly interesting:

* While violent commotions were felt at the same time in the valley of the Mississippi, in the island of St. Vincent, and in the province of Venezuela, the inhabitants of Caraccas, of Calabozo, situate in the midst of the steppes, and on the borders of the Rio Apura, in a space of four thousand square leagues, were terrified on the 30th of April, 1812, by a subterraneous noise, which resembled frequent discharges of the largest cannon. This noise began at two in the morning. It was accompanied by no shock; and, which is very remarkable, it was as loud on the coast as at eighty leagues' distance inland. It was every where believed to be transmitted through the air; and was so far from being thought a subterraneous noise, that at Caraccas, as well as at Calabozo, preparations were made to put the place into a state of defence against an enemy, who seemed to be advancing with heavy artillery. Mr. Palacio, crossing the Rio Apura below the Orivante, near the junction of the Rio Nula, was told by the inhabitants, that the "firing of cannon" had been heard as distinctly at the western extremity of the province of Varinas, as at the port of La Guayra to the north of the chain of the coast.

* The day on which the inhabitants of Terra Firma were alarmed by a subterraneous noise, was that on which happened the great eruption of the volcano in the island of St. Vincent. This mountain, near five hundred toises high, had not thrown out any lava since the year 1718. Scarcely was any smoke perceived to issue from its top, when, in the month of May, 1811, frequent shocks announced, that the volcanic fire was either rekindled, or directed anew toward that part of the West India Indies. The first eruption did not

not take place till the 27th of April, 1812, at noon. It was only an ejection of ashes, but attended with a tremendous noise. On the 30th, the lava passed the brink of the crater, and, after a course of four hours, reached the sea. The noise of the explosion "resembled that of alternate discharges of very large cannon and of musketry; and, which is well worthy of remark, it seemed much louder at sea, at a great distance from the island, than in sight of land, and near the burning volcano."

'The distance in a straight line from the volcano of St. Vincent to the Rio Apura, near the mouth of the Nula, is two hundred and ten leagues. The explosions were consequently heard at a distance equal to that between Vesuvius and Paris. This phenomenon, connected with a great number of facts observed in the Cordilleras of the Andes, shows how much more extensive the subterranean sphere of activity of a volcano is, than we are disposed to admit from the small changes effected at the surface of the globe. The detonations heard during whole days together in the New World, eighty, one hundred, or even two hundred leagues distant from a crater, do not reach us by the propagation of the sound through the air; they are transmitted to us by the ground, perhaps in the very place where we happen to be. If the eruptions of the volcano of St. Vincent, Cotopaxi, or Tunguragua, resounded from afar, like a cannon of an immense magnitude, the noise ought to have increased in the inverse ratio of the distance: but observations prove, that this augmentation does not take place. I must further observe, that Mr. Bonpland and I, going from Guayaquil to the coast of Mexico, crossed latitudes in the South Sea, where all the mariners of our ship were affrighted by a hollow sound, that came from the depth of the ocean, and was transmitted to us by the waters. It was the period of a new eruption of Cotopaxi, and we were as far distant from that volcano, as Etna from the city of Naples.'

We have not adverted to the calamities occasioned by the earthquake at Caraccas. About ten thousand persons were immediately destroyed in that city, and about five thousand in La Guayra. It occurred in the afternoon on Holy Thursday, when a great part of the inhabitants were in the churches. The subsequent misery to the survivors, occasioned by want of shelter and of food, cannot well be described. M. de H. concludes his narrative of these events with an instance of the humanity of the government of the United States.

'When the great catastrophe of Caraccas was known in the United States, the Congress assembled at Washington unanimously decreed, that five ships laden with flour should be sent to the coast of Venezuela, to be distributed among the poorest inhabitants. So generous a supply was received with the warmest gratitude; and this solemn act of a free people, this mark of a national interest, of which the increasing civilization of our old

Europe displays but few recent examples, seemed to be a valuable pledge of the mutual benevolence that ought for ever to unite the nations of both Americas.'

The chapter on the earthquakes of Caraccas occupies the first fifty-six pages of the present volume.

Ascending from earth to heaven, this philosophical traveller, at page 95., describes the splendid appearance of the zodiacal light, which he observed for the first time between the tropics at Caraccas, on the 18th of January, after seven o'clock in the evening; the point of the pyramid or cone of light being at the height of fifty-three degrees. The light totally disappeared nearly three hours and fifty minutes after sun-set. It was seen to the 15th of February, at which time the intensity was observed to change at intervals of two or three minutes, being sometimes very faint, and at others surpassing the brilliancy of the milky way in Sagittarius. No vapour was visible, and nothing seemed to alter the transparency of the atmosphere or the brilliancy of the stars. The author is inclined, from numerous observations made at different times, to believe that the changes in the intensity of the zodiacal light are not all dependent on changes in the state of the atmosphere; and he concludes with admitting that we may entertain the same doubts respecting the nature of this light, as with regard to that which issues from the tails of comets. '*Is it (he adds) a reflected or a direct light?*'

Those readers who have perused the preceding volumes of M. de Humboldt's travels, or the accounts which we have given of them, will be aware that the part which may be properly intitled travels constitutes the smallest portion of the work; and that it is so intermixed with disquisitions on various branches of science, that we often lose sight altogether of the progress of the traveller, or find it difficult to trace the route by which he is advancing or to discover the place of his destination. He frequently and sometimes very laudably diverges from the common track, wherever objects of interest allure his steps. 'A traveller (he observes) who has the intention of studying the configuration and natural riches of a country, is not guided by distances, but by the interest which the regions he may traverse excite in his mind. This powerful motive led us to the mountains of Los Teques, to the thermal springs of Mariara, to the fertile banks of the lake of Valencia, and through the immense savannahs of Calabozo to San Fernando de Apure, in the eastern part of the Varinas. Following this road, our first direction was to the west- to the south, and finally to

to the east-south-east, to enter the Oroonoko by the Apure in the latitude of $7^{\circ} 36' 23''$. Leaving the plains of Caraccas, and ascending the mountains, he presents us with a view of the physical geography and the botany of the more elevated parts of the country. In the vicinity of La Vittoria, at the moderate elevation of two hundred and seventy-three toises above the level of the ocean, he found some fields of wheat mingled with plantations of sugar-canes, coffee, and plantains. Except in the island of Cuba, this is almost the only instance of wheat being cultivated in the equinoctial regions in large quantities, on so low an elevation. An acre near Vittoria yields from three thousand to three thousand two hundred pounds weight of wheat, the acre being about $1\frac{1}{4}$ English. The average produce here, as at Buenos Ayres, is three or four times as much as that of France and northern countries. He observes: 'the produce of grain augments sensibly from high latitudes towards the equator, with the mean temperature of the climate, in comparing spots of different elevations.' The success of agriculture he conceives to depend on local causes, which affect the dryness of the air and the distribution of moisture, but which have less influence on the mean temperature of the whole year than on the equalization of the temperature in the different parts of the year.

The lake of Valencia, which the author visited, is described as equal in size to the lake of Neufchatel, but more nearly resembling in shape the lake of Geneva. The lake of Valencia, called Tacarigua by the Indians, has been constantly diminishing since the country was cultivated. Like the lakes in the valley of Mexico, it forms the centre of a little system of rivers, none of which have any communication with the ocean. Evaporation in that high latitude is sufficient to prevent the waters of the lake from increasing; and, as the rivers become more and more diminished by the destruction of forests and by clearing and cultivating the soil, the supply of water is gradually growing less. This explanation, given by the author at considerable length, appears satisfactory. — Some of the rivers, which flow into the lake of Valencia, owe their origin to hot or boiling springs, rising from ravines in mountains of gneiss and granite. The waters are slightly impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen gas, but they do not contain any sensible portion of saline matter.

In chapter XVII. the traveller traces the great outlines of the physical geography of the interior of the country, of which the Llanos or Steppes of Caraccas form a very striking feature. The chain of mountains, that borders the lake of

Valencia towards the south, forms the northern shore of the great basin of these Savannahs of Caraccas. After having crossed these mountains, (he says,) we plunge into an immense solitude, and see with astonishment vast naked plains, that seem to ascend towards the horizon. According to barometrical admeasurements, the steppes are one thousand feet lower than the bottom of the basin of Aragua, on the eastern side of the mountains. — The subsequent picturesque delineation of the first appearance of the Llanos is given, after a long description of the composition and structure of the rocks over which the travellers passed :

‘ In the Mesa de Paja, in the 9th degree of latitude, we entered the basin of the Llanos. The sun was almost at the zenith; the earth, wherever it appeared sterile and destitute of vegetation, was at the temperature of 48° or 50° . Not a breath of air was felt at the height at which we were on our mules; yet, in the midst of this apparent calm, whirls of dust incessantly arose, driven on by those small currents of air, that glide only over the surface of the ground, and are occasioned by the difference of temperature, which the naked sand and the spots covered with herbs acquire. These sand-winds augment the suffocating heat of the air. Every grain of quartz, hotter than the surrounding air, radiates heat in every direction; and it is difficult to observe the temperature of the atmosphere, without these particles of sand striking against the bulb of the thermometer. All around us, the plains seemed to ascend toward the sky, and that vast and profound solitude appeared to our eyes like an ocean covered with sea-weeds. According to the unequal mass of vapours diffused through the atmosphere, and the variable decrement in the temperature of the different strata of air, the horizon in some parts was clear and distinct; in other parts it appeared undulating, sinuous, and as if striped. The earth there was confounded with the sky. Through the dry fog, and strata of vapour, the trunks of palm-trees were seen from afar. Stripped of their foliage, and their verdant summits, these trunks appeared like the masts of a ship discovered at the horizon.

‘ There is something awful, but sad and gloomy, in the uniform aspect of these Steppes. Every thing seems motionless; scarcely does a small cloud, as it passes across the zenith, and announces the approach of the rainy season, sometimes cast its shadow on the savannah. I know not whether the first aspect of the Llanos excite less astonishment than that of the chain of the Andes. Mountainous countries, whatever may be the absolute elevation of the highest summits, have an analogous physiognomy; but we accustom ourselves with difficulty to the view of the Llanos of Venezuela and Casanare, to that of the Pampos of Buenos-Ayres and of Chaco, which recall to mind incessantly, and during journeys of twenty or thirty days, the smooth surface of the ocean.’ —

‘ The

'The savannahs of America, especially those of the temperate zone, have in many works been designated by the name of prairies: but this term appears to me little applicable to pastures, that are often very dry, though covered with grass of four or five feet in height. The Llanos and the Pampas of South America are real steppes. They display a beautiful verdure in the rainy season, but in the time of great drought assume the aspect of a desert. The grass is then reduced to powder; the earth cracks; the alligator and the great serpents remain buried in the dried mud, till awakened from their long lethargy by the first showers of spring. These phenomena are observed on barren tracts of fifty or sixty leagues in length, wherever the savannahs are not traversed by rivers; for on the borders of rivulets, and around little pools of stagnant water, the traveller finds at certain distances, even during the period of the great droughts, thickets of mauritia, a palm, the leaves of which, spread out like a fan, preserve a brilliant verdure.

'The steppes of Asia are all beyond the tropics, and form very elevated table-lands. America also displays savannahs of considerable extent on the backs of the mountains of Mexico, Peru, and Quito; but its most extensive steppes, the Llanos of Cumana, Caraccas, and Meta, are little raised above the level of the ocean, and all belong to the equinoctial zone. These circumstances give them a peculiar character. They have not, like the steppes of southern Asia, and the deserts of Persia, those lakes without issue, those small systems of rivers, that lose themselves either in the sands, or by subterraneous filtrations. The Llanos of America are inclined towards the east and south; and their running waters are branches of the Oroonoko.'

The substratum of the Llanos of Caraccas is red sand-stone, or conglomerate, covering an extent of many thousand square leagues. Similar red sand-stone occurs in the immense plains of the Amazon, on the eastern boundary of the province of Jaën de Bracamoros. The author observes: 'This prodigious extension of red sand-stone in the low grounds, that stretch along the east of the Andes, is one of the most striking facts with which the study of rocks in the equinoctial regions furnished me.'

The latter part of this volume is occupied with the traveller's voyage on the rivers Apure and the Oroonoko, and with a description of the scenery on the banks of these immense streams, and of the animals that abound in the vast solitudes through which they flow. The Apure is infested with numerous crocodiles, analogous to the crocodile of the Nile; they have the power of turning easily, and they go with facility against the most rapid current. 'I often saw (says M. de H.) young crocodiles biting their tails, and other observers have seen the same action in crocodiles at their full growth.'

The *Harvest of Eggs* (Turtle-eggs), on the banks and islands of the above rivers, commences about the beginning of March; when different tribes of Indians form encampments on certain parts of the banks, which are as much frequented as the fair of Frankfort. In one part, (he says,) we were on a plain of sand, perfectly smooth, and were told that, as far as we could see along the beach, turtles' eggs were concealed under a layer of earth. By means of a pole, which the people thrust into the ground, the extent of the stratum of eggs is determined, as the miner determines the limits of a bed of marle or of coal. They talk continually of square perches of eggs. It is like a mine-country, divided into lots, and worked with the greatest regularity. From these eggs, a kind of oil is prepared, which is extensively used. According to a calculation founded on the quantity of oil procured, M. de H. estimates that nearly one million of turtles deposit their eggs on the banks of the lower Oroonoko, each animal laying from sixty to one hundred and twenty eggs annually.

From the preceding extracts, it will be perceived that the present volume abounds with highly curious and interesting descriptions: but the author has too constant an inclination *à revenir sur ses pas*, and to repeat the observations given in the former part of the work. Unfortunately for his readers, he seems to entertain the belief that bulk is one of the elements of excellence; and that it is of no importance whether he sails backwards or forwards, provided that the narrative be increasing in size. It is true that the country which he explores is so little known to Europeans, that a traveller cannot possibly lose himself without finding something to entertain or instruct us: but we think that M. de Humboldt has made sufficient use of this advantage; "*sat prata biberunt*;" and we would advise him to hasten to the end of his journey, if he has any regard for the patience of his readers. Another and more powerful motive should induce him to follow this advice: the countries which he is describing are engaged in an arduous conflict for independence and liberty, which may establish an entirely new and improved state of society throughout Spanish America; and, should this be the case, we shall feel little interest in the descriptions of the colonial institutions of an enfeebled and degenerate government, which preceded the establishment of the South American republics.

ARTS. IV. & V. *Dr. Purves on All Classes productive of National Wealth, and Gray v. Malthus, &c.*

[Article concluded from the Number for July, p. 283.]

WE have already exhibited a statement of the principal points at issue between the very opposite theories of Mr. Malthus and Mr. Gray on subsistence and population; and we have explained the views of the latter with regard to the much disputed question of productive and unproductive labour. It remains to enlarge on some additional points, that our readers may be completely in possession of the doctrines of Mr. Gray, as exhibited in the publication of Dr. Purves; in doing which, we shall take occasion to introduce some very material qualifications that, in our opinion, ought to be applied to the conclusions formed by these gentlemen, and expressed in the works before us not only in a comprehensive but very absolute form.

Rise of Prices. — The productive theory, as Mr. Gray and Dr. Purves term their view of society, implies a perpetual tendency to a rise of prices; in consequence not of inadequacy in the supply of subsistence, but of the more expensive style of living gradually introduced by the desire of additional comfort. The rise of price is not by any means a disadvantage in their opinion: the current impression in favour of low prices arises from the individual considering himself as a consumer, not as a vender; whereas the latter characteristic, though less apparent, is equally applicable to all classes, — to the farmer, the manufacturer, the professional man, and even the land-owner. Of none of these could the revenue increase without those circumstances which imply increased expenditure. This progressive rise of prices is, as Dr. P. admits, (pp. 101, 102.) a consideration of very serious import to fixed annuitants, and may be disadvantageous likewise to land-owners who grant leases; and, as leases, more particularly long leases, are the soul of agricultural improvements, the author cannot pass this part of the subject without offering several suggestions to obviate loss to the landholder. He hazards the proposition (p. 103.) that the longer the lease the higher should be the eventual rent, on the assumption that population will increase; and he suggests farther that a landholder, to profit fairly by the probable increase, should let his farms at different dates: if he has ten farms in all, let the term of the leases be so divided that one may fall in every two years. — We are, we believe, acquainted with a plan which would answer the purpose of enabling the landholder to give long leases without loss, and without the necessity of
any

any of the precautions suggested by Dr. P., but of this in its season.

The following table, extracted from Mr. G.'s work on the Happiness of States, is a specimen of the instructive results arising from that gentleman's laborious calculations.

Table of the comparative Population and Wealth of the Counties of England and Wales, in the Year ending 5th April, 1801, with their Rate of Increase in Numbers from 1801 to 1811.

COUNTIES.	Population per square mile.	Rank per population.	Rank per rate of increase from 1801 to 1811.	Rank per income of col. and upwards.	COUNTIES.	Population per square mile.	Rank per population.	Rank per rate of increase from 1801 to 1811.	Rank per income of col. and upwards.
Bedford -	147	22	34	23	Salop -	121	31	12	31
Berks -	150	19	41	6	Somerset -	270	12	35	5
Buckingham -	144	24	39	17	Southampton -	232	27	30	10
Cambridge -	129	28	25	25	Stafford -	115	34	1	26
Chester -	182	9	8	24	Suffolk -	169	13	32	16
Cornwall -	160	15	19	32	Surrey -	332	3	2	2
Cumberland -	70	47	23	45	Sussex -	109	34	7	28
Derby -	166	14	18	27	Warwick -	208	6	50	13
Devon -	114	33	29	35	Westmoreland -	52	51	36	46
Dorset -	96	38	42	34	Wilts -	135	26	52	22
Durham -	176	11	28	30	Worcester -	279	10	17	14
Essex -	151	18	31	12	York -				
Gloucester -	200	7	33	13	—, E. Riding -	99	36	5	33
Hereford -	95	39	48	38	—, N. Riding -	76	45	53	41
Hertford -	136	25	21	9	—, W. Riding -	230	4	15	7
Huntingdon -	123	30	27	18	WALEN				
Kent -	219	5	3	5	Anglesea -	125	29	37	47
Lancaster -	391	2	2	4	Brecon -	35	54	6	51
Leicester -	159	16	16	19	Caernarthen -	66	48	20	48
Lincoln -	74	46	48	39	Caernarvon -	88	42	9	50
Middlesex -	2922	1	13	1	Cardigan -	55	50	11	52
Monmouth -	86	43	26	40	Denbigh -	98	37	47	42
Norfolk -	149	20	45	23	Flint -	146	23	10	37
Northampton -	153	17	44	20	Glamorgan -	90	40	24	43
Northumberland -	80	44	52	36	Merioneth -	44	52	51	54
Nottingham -	187	8	24	15	Montgomery -	62	49	49	49
Oxford -	148	21	40	8	Pembroke -	89	41	43	44
Rutland -	100	35	54	29	Radnor -	41	53	22	53

After the ample exposition which we have already given of the doctrines of Mr. G. and Dr. P., we are bound in critical justice to notice the points in which we differ from these gentlemen: they relate chiefly to topics of finance.

Taxes and public Debt.—Dr. P. is no advocate for the repeal of taxes; alleging that it would involve a corresponding diminution of prices, followed by a considerable reduction of employment. Taxes, he adds, are supposed to be injurious to individuals because we look only to their payment, not to the employment which they create: but the money is, in general, spent at home in fixed salaries to government-officers, in the interest of the national debt, or in equipments for public enterprises. Again, on whatever class or commodity a tax be imposed, it ultimately affects all; a truth which, if thoroughly understood, he adds, would considerably lessen the clamour raised by certain classes on taxing the particular commodities in which they deal. Admitting partially the truth of these observations, we can by no means assent to the conclusions drawn from them, which are strongly marked by the sanguine spirit that characterizes these volumes. We have heard of theorists in a former age, who had the sagacity to attribute the superior wealth of Holland to the magnitude of her debt; and Dr. P., without going so far, gives our debt the convenient name of ‘public service capital,’ — a sweetly soothing epithet, which deserves to be ranked on a par with the American appellation of “helpers” or “hired people” for domestic servants. We pay upwards of 42 millions annually for the interest of this debt and the sinking fund together; a payment which, extracted from the population at large in the shape of taxes, has created an enormous increase in the price of articles, affecting first the immediate buyers, but indirectly the nation at large. ‘This,’ says Dr. P., (p. 136. of his first publication,) ‘is no disadvantage: the public is just where it was before: they have had 42 millions charged on them, and they have charged 42 millions in return.’ All this might be true were the British islands a distinct planet, or were they separated from the rest of the earth by a “wall of brass ten thousand cubits high:” but, doomed as we are to intercourse with our continental brethren, does not this enormous taxation place us under a great relative disadvantage in a competition with foreign manufacturers; and is it not to be apprehended that our capitalists may transfer to untaxed countries that money, that machinery, and, in part, those hands, which have hitherto so effectually conducted to make us support our financial burdens? If such be the result of our existing distresses, will Dr. P. calmly maintain that a rise of wages (p. 138.) is not a disadvantage but a source of emolument? The repeal of war-taxes is in his opinion (p. 146.) a disadvantage: but can he have forgotten that our industrious and once flourishing neighbour, Holland, exhibits

an example of an over-taxed country losing a great share of her manufactures, and her population, from the very cause, which has for some years borne so heavily on England? Dr. P. animadvert (p. 143.) with great exultation on the failure of the unfavourable predictions of Mr. Hume and Dr. Price with regard to the ruinous effects of our national debt, and even seems (p. 157.) to feel some alarm at the increasing operation of the sinking fund: but he is evidently not sufficiently conversant with the arithmetical statements of our revenue and expenditure, to be aware that the operation of the sinking fund is nearly balanced and annulled by a corresponding deficiency in our revenue.

Our circulating Medium.—Dr. P. is no advocate of the doctrines of the Bullion-Committee of 1810, and still less of those writers, or speakers in parliament, who have since called for an early and indiscriminating return to cash-payments. His grand argument, as that of all who thoroughly study the subject, is that paper-currency is productive of income to the issuers, to an extent that forms a great national object. . Supposing the amount of bank-notes in Great Britain and Ireland to be 60 millions, and the profit on the issue to be between three and four per cent., the collective gains of the Bank of England and of private bankers are not over-rated at two millions sterling; in addition to which, a great national profit arises from the advances made by bankers to farmers, manufacturers, and merchants. In this argument Dr. P. has our cordial concurrence, as well as in the opinion that the dread from over-issue is chimerical, provided that the Bank be pledged to pay in specie on demand; a precaution, however, which, if we may judge from his silence, he considers to be unnecessary. Such an omission on his part will startle every attentive inquirer; and still more the notion (p. 492. of his second publication) that ‘the course of exchange and the price of bullion have no reference to the amount of notes in circulation,’ as if the price of gold could have risen in 1813 forty per cent. above our paper-money, without the existence of a great and radical defect in the character of the latter.—His next topic is Country-banks. In adverting (p. 122.) to the occasional failures among them, Dr. P. hazards a conjecture that the loss to the public, as holders of such notes, is not greater than that which would occur in the case of a metallic currency from shipwreck and other accidents. In treating of the stagnation and distress of the year 1816, he animadverts (p. 192.) on the conduct of the country-bankers, and blames them for a too sudden recall of the pecuniary advances which they

they had made to the farmers in the day of high prices and agricultural prosperity, alleging that they were actuated by imaginary terrors. This, however, is carried too far: the conduct of the country-bankers was the *consequence* not the *cause* of the agricultural distress: they knew that the interest of money was on the decline, and that it was not to their advantage to recall any advances that could be continued with safety.

The Army. — Our military establishment for the present year is about 70,000 men for Great Britain, Ireland, and all our foreign possessions except India, being a reduction of fully 100,000 from the establishment of late years. Dr. P. assumes (p. 85. of his first publication) that our army, officers and soldiers together, may cost annually about 60l. a head; and he considers our expenditure for 100,000 military much in the same light as an expenditure for 100,000 cultivators or manufacturers. All three, he adds, expend about six millions annually, or create that amount of employment by the purchase of the necessaries, comforts, or luxuries of life; and all three draw nearly the same sum from the public, though with a difference in the manner, the military being paid by government through the medium of taxes. What is the consequence of the discharge of 100,000 soldiers? A change in the particular employment which had been created by them while soldiers, and the introduction of these men into competition with others in lines of industry, the employment for which is diminished by the peace. This, however, is a very faint manner of stating the pecuniary pressure of war. Admitting that most of the money raised is diffused again within the country, can Dr. P. wish his reader to be impressed by the perusal of his book with the idea that the twenty millions expended for the military department, in a year, leave a lasting national benefit, in any degree to be compared with that of a similar sum disbursed for the formation of canals, or the improvement of high ways?

Mr. Gray has added some interesting papers to the Appendix to Dr. P.'s first work; particularly four letters to M. Say, the well known French economist, on the pamphlet by the latter which described his visit to this country after the peace, and was reported by us in our Number for December, 1815. M. Say is less complimentary than his countrymen in general, and had no scruple to proclaim that the war had laid the foundation of ruin to the finances of England. "In no country," he said, "is there such a necessity for incessant application; in England, a man cannot afford to be at leisure; *chacun y court absorbé par ses affaires.*" To these, and sundry
other

other remarks equally unceremonious, Mr. G. retorts first in a series of arguments, and next in a report of a journey lately performed by him in France.

‘ In a visit which I made to your country last year, I confess I did not find such striking or brilliant results. Travelling partly with a view to ascertain how far the doctrines which I had deduced from the facts around me in our island, as well as from information, agreed with the facts found in so populous a state as France, I scrutinized as narrowly as I could the circumstances of the population. Considering an extension of buildings and an improvement in their style, which show the increase of population combined with the concomitant increase of wealth, as the surest symptoms of a thriving country (*Hap. of States*, p. 290.), I paid particular attention to your towns and villages in these points. I am sorry to say I saw no progress whatever. I have no recollection of any strictly *additional* buildings, nor do I find any such noticed in my memorandums. The only new buildings which I perceived were in some villages that had been partly destroyed in the conflicts with the invading armies. In truth, though we also are suffering from an unusual stagnation, I found at my return more new houses going on in the petty suburb of London, Camden Town, and its neighbourhood, than I had seen in the whole of my route through France. Every town and every village seemed stationary. — I own, however, I found much of what I expected, on my principles, from a state so long well peopled. There was an appearance of wealth, though, in general, it is true, but of little capital. Your soil is almost universally under cultivation, but, with some exceptions, in a very inferior style. Your people are generally employed and busy, yet not very effectively. Though the population of France be to that of England only as about 140 to 200 per square mile, it is to Britain as 140 to perhaps 150. She seems, however, to be a still more considerable rate than even the former difference behind our island in capital, and the results of active capital. In several statistical points we have got the start of a full century before you.’

The great number of paupers in England is attributed by Mr. G. to the want of sobriety and saving habits among the common people: which, he adds, are to be formed only by means of such institutions as friendly societies and saving banks: to sumptuary laws, either for the upper or lower orders, he is altogether adverse.

It is now time to bring our report to a close, and to express in summary but comprehensive terms our opinion of the labours of Mr. Gray and Dr. Purves. We have principally to object to their general tone of confidence as indicative of an inadequate sense of the difficulties of life to the individual, or of the pressure of a military contest on a nation. Without being apprized of the personal situation of these gentlemen, we are tempted,

empted, from the spirit of their works, to hazard a conjecture that both of them are strangers to the anxiety and expence of rearing a family: at all events, it is apparent, (see Dr. P.'s first work, p. 158. *et seq.*) that, had they the honour of being advanced to situations in the cabinet of the Prince Regent, the public might bid adieu to schemes of retrenchment: expenditure would then be declared, as by M. de Calonne in France, and Marquis Wellesley in India, to be "economy on a large scale:" a royal cottage would in their eyes be a trifle; and palaces at Brighton, or elsewhere, would be built *en grand* for the good of the public. — That early marriage is conducive to virtue, and that a numerous population forms a main ingredient in political strength, we readily admit: but we can by no means subscribe to the idea, (pp. 308. 311. of Dr. P.'s first work) that the community ought to draw on its general funds for the purpose of relieving individuals with large families, for in this, as in all other departments, matters should be left to their natural course. Again, with respect to military contests, we have throughout an under-rating, not of the horrors of war, but of its losses in a political and financial sense; taxes and national debt being accounted no misfortune; and the writers never appearing to anticipate that these burdens, carried to an extreme, produce emigration, discouragement of marriage, and a long list of those evils which their theory most decidedly deprecates. Impartiality required that the labour of the multitudes employed as soldiers and seamen should have been exhibited as less productive, not in a limited or partial but in a very high degree, than that of their agricultural or manufacturing countrymen. Among all the tenets of these works, we recollect scarcely any of a negative cast, except (p. 216. of Dr. P.'s first work) the admonition on the danger of over-trading; or, as they term it, over-supplying: — the error into which, of all others, our countrymen are most apt to fall, and which has been so unfortunately exemplified in our exports to India, Brazil, and the United States.

As to composition, Dr. P., though much less of a delinquent than his predecessor, is by no means exempt from censure; his style being verbose and full of repetitions, while his matter wants condensation and arrangement, to a degree that makes it by no means easy to take a complete view of his work, even with the aid of his elaborate subdivisions, his index, and his tables of contents. In these and the preceding animadversions, we have no dread of outstepping the fair limits of criticism; and, indeed, the majority of readers, startled by the confidence of tone and exaggeration of argument prevalent in these volumes, may probably be of opinion that

that we have not carried our censures sufficiently far: but we cannot avoid feeling that these gentlemen, whatever be their errors on particular points, have taken their ground on the liberal side; that their erudition is extensive and their view cheering; and that those who attempt to establish the position that "population is the regulator of subsistence, not subsistence of population," are intitled to the thanks of every benevolent mind.

ART. VI. *Letters on the Events which have passed in France since the Restoration in 1815.* By Helen Maria Williams. 8vo pp. 200. 7s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1819.

WE are much gratified at an opportunity of renewing our acquaintance with Miss Williams as an original writer after having seen her in the less dignified capacity of a translator, and of a work, too, which, whatever may be the personal merits of the author, (*Humboldt's Travels in South America*, see Article III. of this Number,) has certainly not the gift of attractive composition. Our satisfaction was increased on finding that Miss W. was no apostate to the cause of freedom. 'I disavow,' she says to her correspondent, 'your ill-founded conjectures respecting my prolonged silence: the interest I once took in the French Revolution is not chilled, and the enthusiasm I once felt for the cause of liberty still warms my bosom.' — 'Those who believed as firmly as myself in the first promises of the Revolution have perhaps sometimes felt, like me, a pang of disappointment; but no doubt continue, like me, to love liberty, even when it may have given some cause of complaint.'

Her sketch of recent events in France may be divided into three parts:

1. The Persecution of the Protestants in the South in 1815.
2. The parliamentary Discussions relative to the Freedom of the Press, the *Concordat*, and the new Conscription.
3. The Law of Election, and the Contest caused by it in the last Spring.

The sufferings of the French Protestants, which have already been the object of much discussion and sympathy in this country, were to be attributed to the over zealous part taken by that respectable body on the second return of Napoleon; who succeeded in persuading them that the Bourbons had been on the point of renewing the fetters of the reign of Louis XIV., and that without him an end would soon have been put to the free exercise of their worship. This led to an indiscreet ex-

ulation over the Catholics during the three months of Bonaparte's second reign: that reign closed, and a melancholy reaction ensued, in the plundering of a number of houses and the assassination of several individuals by the hands of the Catholics. It is a fact not generally known that, while England, the first of Protestant countries, was straining every nerve for the overthrow of Napoleon, the preservation of his power was ardently desired by the professors of the same religion in France; so much are the feelings of particular classes influenced by unperceived causes; and so necessary is it to be acquainted with local circumstances before an opinion is formed on the political state of France. The excesses committed, whether by Catholics or Protestants, were less the result of religious division, than of that unfortunate precipitation which marks the natives of the south of France; and which led the Marseillais in one year (1792) to take up arms against the throne, and in the next year to array themselves against the Convention.

Passing from this gloomy subject to a more cheering theme, the mode of parliamentary proceeding in France, our readers, at least those who have not yet visited the banks of the Seine, may be somewhat surprized to hear that the members of the French Parliament do not speak from their seats, but repair to an elevated chair or pulpit called the *Tribune*; whence they deliver their speeches, not *ex tempore*, and seldom even from notes, but by reading a manuscript, — a practice not permitted in our Parliament. The matter of their speeches, also, is unlike ours, being often marked by a philosophical or rather metaphysical spirit, which to us would appear singularly misplaced in men of business. So fond are some of the French speakers of dealing in generals, and of going back to the origin of society, that they might, says Miss W., be addressed in the words of the play, "*Avocat, passez au déluge.*" The consequence of this latitude, and of the privilege of reading, is that the discussions on a great question are continued from week to week, and that the business of their Parliament is very much in arrear.

Miss Williams's personal residence in France enables her to speak with confidence on subjects which, to the distant observer, are involved in obscurity: a fact of which we select the following short but gratifying example:

' You may still inquire in French society what are the political sentiments of a man in advanced life; but if the person with whom you converse be young, inquiry is useless: that person is a lover of liberty. The French youth have lived only under the new order of things; and have not been taught to respect the

old. They have imbibed the principles of the Revolution, without having felt its evils. Its pitiless tempest rocked their cradles and passed harmless over their heads. They are not like those who, having passed through the Revolution, are weary of the conflict, and disposed to leave the reformation of the world to whomever it may concern. The minds of the French youth are unsubdued by suffering, and full of the ardour of independence. They know that liberty is the prize for which many of their parents (relatives) bled in the field, or perished on the scaffold. But they are too well read in modern history, of which their country has been the great theatre, to seek for liberty where it is not to be found. They do not resemble that misled and insensate multitude, who, in the first years of the Revolution, had just thrown off their chains, and profaned, in their ignorance, the cause they revered. The present race are better taught, and will not bow the knee to false idols. They rally round the Charter as their tutelar divinity, whom it is their duty to obey, and their privilege to defend.'

The election-law in France is extremely simple; for it shews no regard to residence, to birth, or to antient usage, but confers a vote on every individual who pays direct taxes to the amount of 12l.; corresponding, if we make allowance for the higher value of money, and the difference of taxation, to 20l. or 30l. in England. Such also was the law in the time of Bonaparte: but the spirit of public elections was much impaired by the powers of intermediate committees, of whom in England we know nothing, but who, in France, were familiar to every one by the name of *collèges électoraux*. The voters at that time were not allowed to name their member; they could only choose a *collège électoral*, which met in a private hall and proceeded to the election. In 1817, Louis XVIII., enabled at last to pursue the liberal course which seems always to have been his personal wish, obtained from the Chambers a law abrogating the electoral committees, and empowering the voters to name their representatives at once. On this plan were conducted the partial elections of autumn 1817, and autumn 1818; the French House of Commons being renewable by a fifth annually: but each return sent to the assembly a proportion of revolutionists, and spread alarm among the royalists. This alarm was communicated to the Duc de Richelieu; who, after having concluded, in his capacity of prime-minister, the treaty for the evacuation of the French territory, at Aix-la-Chapelle, flattered himself that the time was come for carrying an important modification of the election-law, and for transferring a larger share of influence to the higher classes. In this idea he was supported by Lainé, minister for the Home Department,

ment, and many others: but the King remained inflexible; and a change of ministry consequently took place in the end of last year, by the resignation of the Duke, Lainé, and others, and by the advancement of Decazes and Dessolles to the highest offices. "Yet ceased the royalists not thus:" they knew their strength in the House of Peers, and they fixed on the Marquis de Barthélémy, a mild and respected character, to be the organ of the proposed change of the election-law. In vain did Decazes on the part of the ministry, Lanjuinais on the part of the veterans of the Revolution, and the Duc de Broglie, the youthful leader of the *Libéraux* or Independents, entreat the House to drop the motion, by declaring solemnly, *que rien de plus funeste ne pouvoit sortir de cette enceinte*: — the majority was inflexible; and a day was fixed for the discussion of M. de Barthélémy's motion.

'Were I,' says Miss W., 'to describe the consternation which M. de Barthélémy's proposal excited in Paris, it would seem like exaggeration. An important motion in the English Parliament awakens public attention; but in that country, seated on its rock, can only have an indirect, and perhaps a remote influence, on individual interests. Here the connection of a great political question with the welfare of private life is immediate and overwhelming. The day after that fatal motion, the public funds which we (the French) are now learning to esteem, but which, having often known them nearly annihilated, nobody trusts too far, fell precipitately. They had already suffered from certain negotiations and speculations that took place upon the departure of the allies; but M. de Barthélémy gave them the *coup-de-grace*. The stability of the commercial world was fearfully shaken, and many private fortunes were consequently overthrown. It is true, indeed, that in France people are accustomed to be ruined. The Revolution, queen of all earthly reverses, has taught us great practical philosophy with respect to changes of fortune, which are supported here with the same sort of resignation as if they had happened from physical causes, some deviation of nature, some shock of the elements. The evil has been too general in the different phases of our history to be felt as a disgrace, or even to furnish a claim to pity. But to return to public disasters. The motion obtained a majority in the Chamber of Peers of more than forty votes.'

The speeches on this occasion were perhaps the most elaborate and eloquent that have been delivered in France since the restoration of the Bourbons. The three orators already mentioned took part in favour of the election-law; while others equally distinguished, and among them the eloquent and classical De Fontanes, urged the danger of the existing law, and called for a change in the name of their country and of public tranquillity. In the Commons, also,

the question excited a great debate: but, though supported with much spirit by M. Lainé, and others, the proposition was thrown out; and soon afterward a decided end was put to future discussions of the kind, by the nomination of fifty-four new peers, of whose attachment to the existing law of election, and to the measures of ministry, there could be no doubt. The *Ultras* are now considered to have given themselves the mortal blow; and it is a current anecdote in Paris that 'M. de Barthélémy, meeting one of the new Peers lately in the anti-room of the palace, begged him to pass first. "Non, Monsieur le Marquis," said the new Peer, stepping back, "*je sais trop ce que je vous dois.*"

The question of the Concordat, or the religious compact between the French government and the court of Rome, is treated (p. 94.) with equal sprightliness; and in perusing the author's remarks on education, literature, the new conscription, &c., the reader is likely to experience no other regret than that they are by far too short.

ART. VII. *The Waggoner*, a Poem; to which are added, Sonnets. By William Wordsworth. 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Co. 1819.

'THE WAGGONER,' and 'SONNETS,' in the same little drab-coloured pamphlet! Well! Our ancestors would have stared at these things: but we receive them with a good-humoured smile, and our taste is proportionably improved.

Mr. Wordsworth appears determined to try how far he can trample on the degraded poetry of his country. "Keep it down," seems to be his prevailing principle; and well may he add, "now it is down." He asks us, in his motto,

"What's in a name?"

"Brutus will start a spirit as soon as Cæsar!"

and, therefore, 'the Waggoner' will do as well as Brutus. Beautiful reasoning! and beautifully illustrated in the poem itself.

This tale is dedicated to Charles Lamb, Esq., to whose own poetical performances we hope soon to call the attention of the favoured few, who rejoice in the productions of the modern antique school: but Mr. Wordsworth apologizes for not adding *the Waggoner* to "Peter Bell,"* (as Mr. Lamb,

* See our last Review.

it seems, had wished; and the whole communication is *very* interesting to the public!) on account of 'the higher tone of imagination, and the deeper touches of passion,' attempted in "Peter Bell!" — *Risum teneatis, amici?*

For ourselves, we confess honestly that we consider 'the Waggoner' to be one of the best and most ingenious of *all* Mr. Wordsworth's poems. It manifests, occasionally, a classical style of language and versification which is wholly superior to his native manner; and, were it not for the internal evidence of several instances of extreme folly, we should really be disposed to suspect that some lighter and more joyous hand had here been at work. Throughout the piece, or at all events very frequently, we perceive a sly covert sort of irony, an *under-tone* of playfulness, smiling at the mock heroics of the author; and preserving that difficult but exact spirit of bombast, which betrays a consciousness of misapplied sublimity, without rendering it quite gross and ridiculous. Let our readers judge. Mr. Wordsworth's 'Waggoner,' who was wont, for many years, to carry the heavy goods (Mr. W.'s own works included) from the lakes to London, after most exemplary habits of sobriety, was tempted to stay too long at an ale-house with a drunken sailor, carrying a ship about as an exhibition, and is obliged to make unusual exertions up a northern hill to recover lost time. At this juncture, the *Pickwood* of those parts 'pricks forth from Keswick' to look after his waggon; when the exultation of inebriety (a state which Mr. Wordsworth has described with a degree of feeling that we should scarcely have expected) has passed away from the waggoner and his marine companion.

' They are drooping, weak, and dull;
But the horses stretch and pull,
With increasing vigour climb,
Eager to repair lost time;
Whether, by their own desert,
Knowing that there's cause for shame,
They are labouring to avert
At least a portion of the blame
Which full surely will alight
Upon his head, whom, in despite
Of all his faults, they love the best;
Whether for him they are distress;
Or, by length of fasting rous'd,
Are impatient to be housed;
Up against the hill they strain —
Tugging at the iron chain —
Tugging all with might and main —
Last and foremost, every horse
To the utmost of his force!

And the smoke and respiration
 Rising like an exhalation,
 Blends with the mist, — a moving shroud
 To form — an undissolving cloud ;
 Which with slant ray the merry sun
 Takes delight to play upon.
 Never, surely, old Apollo,
 He, or other god as old,
 Of whom in story we are told,
 Who had a favourite to follow
 Through a battle or elsewhere,
 Round the object of his care,
 In a time of peril, threw
 Veil of such celestial hue ;
 Interposed so bright a screen
 Him and his enemies between !

‘ Alas, what boots it ? ’ —

This concluding question intimates the catastrophe
 story. Benjamin, with all his itinerary and vehicular
 is dismissed by his inexorable master ; and the
 droops, decays, and ceases to travel, in consequence.
 sorry carts’ supply its place ; and, passing by Mr. W
 worth’s interesting windows, they will probably prod
 more than “ eight sorry poems,” in the course of th
 season. We subjoin the passage in which the cheerful
 of intoxication are so livingly depicted.

‘ Now, heroes, for the true commotion,
 The triumph of your late devotion !
 Can aught on earth impede delight,
 Still mounting to a higher height ;
 And higher still — a greedy flight !
 Can any low-born care pursue her,
 Can any mortal clog come to her ?
 No notion have they — not a thought,
 That is from joyless regions brought !
 And, while they coast the silent lake,
 Their inspiration I partake ;
 Share their empyreal spirits — yea,
 With their enraptured vision, see —
 O fancy what a jubilee !
 What shifting pictures — clad in gleams
 Of colour bright as feverish dreams !
 Earth, spangled sky, and lake serene,
 Involved and restless all — a scene
 Pregnant with mutual exaltation,
 Rich change, and multiplied creation !
 This sight to me the Muse imparts ;
 And then, what kindness in their hearts !
 What tears of rapture, what vow-making,
 Profound entreaties, and hand-shaking !

What solemn, vacant, interlacing,
 As if they'd fall asleep embracing !
 Then, in the turbulence of glee,
 And in the excess of amity,
 Says Benjamin, " That ass of thine,
 He spoils thy sport, and hinders mine :
 If he were tether'd to the waggon,
 He'd drag as well what he is dragging ;
 And we, as brother should with brother,
 Might trudge it alongside each other !" "

When our readers have paused a moment to digest this last and very elegant line, we beg to ask them whether these results of conviviality are not most naturally represented ?

" He best can paint them who shall feel them most."

We call on Mr. Southey, on Mr. Coleridge, on Mr. Lamb, and on the *arbiter elegantiarum ac bibendi* himself, to join in our sincere admiration of that truly picturesque couplet,

' What solemn, vacant, interlacing,
 As if they'd fall asleep embracing !'

Seriously, we can no longer endure to hear the poets of so festive a school called the "*Water Poets of the Lakes*;" and from the strong spirit of humour evidently displayed in this memorable passage, we more than suspect where Mr. Wordsworth's real *forte* lies: we exhort him to cultivate his talent for the ridiculous; and we earnestly request him no longer to *laugh in his sleeve* at his 'solemn, vacant' admirers, but to come forth in that character for which nature has plainly designed him, "the Prince of Poetical Burlesque."

We must not dismiss this little work without a word of compliment to the versatility of genius that is exhibited, on all occasions, by its author. 'The Waggoner' has driven a small load of 'Sonnets' with him to town, and some of them breathe the true *simplicity* of the writer; as, for instance, when he calls building an imaginary castle on a rock an '*innocent scheme*!' or tells us that good old Isaac Walton, in his plain love of nature, was guilty of the metaphysical quaintness of "*exhorting*" us

' To reverent watching of each *still report*
 That nature utters from her *rural shrine*.'

This '*still report*,' or *φωνή ἀφωτος* of nature, is a very remarkable thing; and we call the attention of every patient listener to watch and wait for it; or, peradventure, it may escape a common hearkening. Is it not like the *ὀδμὴ ἀφ' ἑρῶν* of the Prometheus?

Most prominently and peculiarly does Mr. Wordsworth stand forth, *all himself*, in that unrivalled Sonnet, ycleped 'The *Wild-duck's Nest*:' for, at the end of this *idiosyncratical* production, the poet exclaims

‘ I gaze — *and almost wish to lay aside*
Humanity, weak slave of cumbrous pride.’

Gaze at what? At a wild-duck's nest! Oh, “Goosy—goosy-Gander!” friend of our infancy, resign thine honours and thou, “Happy, happy, happy Fly,” acquaintance of our manhood, sink into deep forgetfulness, before an author who wishes (almost) to lay aside *humanity*, at the sight of a wild-duck's nest!

Is it, in sober seriousness, possible that these things should be uttered by a person capable of composing the following sonnet?

‘ CAPTIVITY.

‘ “ As the cold aspect of a sunless way
Strikes through the traveller's frame with deadlier chill,
Oft as appears a grove, or obvious hill,
Glistening with unparticipated ray,
Or shining slope where he must never stray;
So joys, remembered without wish or will,
Sharpen the keenest edge of present ill, —
On the crush'd heart a heavier burthen lay.
Just Heaven, contract the compass of my mind
To fit proportion with my altered state!
Quench those felicities whose light I find
Burning within my bosom all too late! —
O be my spirit, like my thralldom, strait;
And like mine eyes, that stream with sorrow blind!” ’

ART. VIII. *Benjamin the Waggoner*, a ryghte merrie and conceitede Tale in Verse. A Fragment. 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Baldwin and Co. 1819.

THE fault of this *jeu d'esprit* is its length.

“ *Nec luisse pudet, sed non incidere ludum,*”

should be the controuling principle of every poetical trifle of this description.

The introductory and the concluding prose, the last of which (with a fortunate reference to the characteristic vanity of the original writer) is called ‘My NOTES,’ are liable to this charge of prolixity in a great degree; yet are they very
happy

happy exposures of the folly at which they are levelled, in numerous instances.

In the introduction, the author describes his adventures in the stage-coach from Carlisle to London. The coach takes up a certain lake-poet in its way; and this new passenger, with his usual egotism, enters into conversation on a certain northern examination of his own style of poetry. The object is very well effected, and may serve as an additional antidote to silly admiration of the style in question: but it is, as we have implied, and as the Americans would say, too *lengthy*. In the notes, we have a collection of most ludicrous extracts from the various writings of the author in question; and we should think that, when thus brought together, they must satisfy the most sceptical, settle the most hesitating, and disgust the least fastidious judges of his merits.

As to the 'body' of this parody, we have certainly some very laughable stanzas in it: but here also the writer is too prolix; and sometimes, we grieve to say, not very decorous. It is gross injustice to Mr. Wordsworth to represent him, in any manner, as an indelicate writer. We must observe that the parody, although it is intitled 'Benjamin the Waggoner,' is all about Peter Bell. *N'importe.*

"Et vitulâ tu dignus, et hic."

- ' O that men would learn to mark
The little — little — little beauties,
Which I do see in field or hill,
In river, or in where I will;
O, that men would mind their duties!
- ' To gaze upon a fallow field;
To see a worm turned up with harrow;
To look upon a blade of grass —
A duck — a goose — a pig — an ass —
Manure that's wheel'd in a wheelbarrow.
- ' To mark the little things of nature,' &c.

When will Mr. Wordsworth cease to afford occasion for such remarks on his obvious abuse of his 'MUSICAL MICROSCOPE?'

Again;

- ' Now Bell had a look of "out of doors,"
On such a man you seldom gaze;
He had a westerly windy look,
A stare in's face he ill could brook,
He squinted too — or saw two ways.

' There

- ‘ There was a riddle in his look,
A kind of sort of forest boldness ;
He had a pimple on his nose,
A pimple which would oft disclose
The very freezing point of coldness.
- ‘ A sort of kind of mountain hardness,
Hung upon his rocky brow ;
His chin was shapen like a wedge,
His beard was thick as thickest hedge,
He put up at the Barley-Mow.
- ‘ Sometimes he had a roguish look —
His eyes were sly, and fix’d, and stony,
His cheeks were like a field of clover,
A brickish redness, and moreover,
His face was high, and hard, and bony. —
- ‘ To sit and see the tomtits hopping ;
To sit and see the good old men ;
To see the girls, in Sunday gowns,
Returning from the market-towns,
Winding around the woody glen.
- ‘ To sit and gaze upon a grave,
To see the long grass daily growing,
To see the moss creep o’er the name,
Time mocking human hopes of fame —
To look — but with a look that’s knowing.
- ‘ A little while we make a noise,
And make a stir as great as may be ;
But soon the sisters cut the thread,
And mix us with the silent dead,
As silent as a silent baby.
- ‘ What is life ? a rose, a thorn,
A shade, a meteor, or a bubble ;
Brittle as glass, as shadow fleet,
Light as the gossamer’s airy feet,
A little pleasure — deal of trouble.’ —

We could select many more and perhaps still better passages : but these are enough ; and we will only ask the candid reader of this anonymous poet, whether he be not quite a match for Mr. Wordsworth in that gentleman’s own most original manner ? In fact, the facility of successfully imitating this style is a sufficient proof of its badness. No good author *can* be thus degraded.

ART. IX. Mr. Lingard's *History of England*.

[Article concluded from the Number for July, p. 309.]

THE second volume of Mr. Lingard's work soon brings his readers to the quarrel between Henry II. and Thomas à Becket; one of the most important events in the history of the contests which raged between the spiritual and the temporal power, in the middle ages. The sparring between William Rufus and Archbishop Anselm, on the subject of investitures, is related by Mr. L. in his first volume. It left the public mind in a considerable degree of ferment; and it was easy to foresee that much time would not elapse before an explosion.

The controversy with Becket turned on the immunities of the clergy; and the origin of them is traced by Mr. Lingard to the custom, which generally prevailed among the early Christians, of submitting their differences to the paternal decisions of their bishops. Something like civil authority was conferred on the prelacy by a constitution of the Emperor Constantine, which enjoined the officers of justice to execute the sentences of the bishops without delay or appeal. Still, no cause could be brought under their cognizance without the consent of both parties: but a constitution of Theodosius placed this at the option of either party; and this constitution was adopted by Charlemagne, and received as law throughout the whole of his extensive dominions. The polity of the Saxons was different, as both the bishop and the sheriff sate in the county-court. Soon after the Norman conquest, that court was divided into a temporal court for civil and a spiritual court for ecclesiastical concerns; the sheriff presiding in the former, and the bishop in the latter: but the canon-law compelled the clergy to submit even their temporal differences to the bishop's court; and, by degrees, the clergy contended that, in all cases where either party was an ecclesiastic, the matter belonged to the cognizance of the diocesan. They also claimed an exemption, in all criminal cases, from the jurisdiction of the temporal courts. This important immunity had been granted by the Emperor Constantine to the Roman clergy, and his constitution had been adopted into the canon-law. That code of jurisprudence the clergy wished to have considered as sacred, and as binding, by divine authority, on every Christian government and every Christian individual: but, though in this pretension the kings of England occasionally acquiesced, they never expressly recognized it; public opinion, however, was generally in its favour.

If, in these instances, the claims of the clergy were unjustifiable,

justifiable, those of the monarchs were equally inadmissible in others. The right, on which they often insisted, of keeping benefices vacant during their pleasure, and of appropriating, while they remained vacant, the profits of them to their own use, was not consonant to the law of the land; nor did any thing sanction the claim which they constantly made, that their officers and tenants should be exempted from the spiritual censures of the church.

Such were the principal points in discussion, at the time of which we are speaking: on each side great irritation was excited; and it was generally perceived that the parties would soon come into contact, and that the conflict would be serious. Under these circumstances, the contest between Henry II. and Becket began. Mr. Lingard gives a plain and unadorned narrative of the principal facts which attended it, and which he places before his reader, leaving him to draw his own conclusions. We have always thought that historians have not sufficiently distinguished between the rights of the parties as they stood at the commencement of the contest, and their rights as they were afterward settled by the constitutions of Clarendon. Admitting that, when the dispute first began, Becket could urge, in support of his claims, many plausible arguments, both from principle and precedent, still it seems clear that these celebrated constitutions deprived him of the greatest part of what he could thus urge in his defence. Almost all the claims for which he contended had been a gift of the state to the church; and what the state could give the state could resume. The constitutions of Clarendon were a great legislative act; and the simple question, therefore, is whether they deprived the church of any privilege to which she was considered as intitled by divine right. So far as they tended to divest her of these, they would be regarded as unjustifiable, and Becket as the champion of lawful authority: but we suspect that, at the present day, few even among the Catholic advocates of the Archbishop will argue that all the rights for which he contended were of this description.

If we turn from the merits of the case to the merits of the man, we must shift our ground. We must make great allowance for the prejudices of the times, and for the general ignorance respecting the limits of spiritual and temporal power which then prevailed; and we must also admit that public opinion, however erroneous, was very favourable to the prelate. Viewing his conduct in this light, whatever idea we ourselves may entertain of the justice of Becket's cause, it may still be conceded to Mr. Lingard 'that the prelate was a martyr to what HE deemed to be his duty.' — 'His personal

sonal virtues,' continues the author, 'his exalted station, the dignity and composure with which he met his fate, the sacredness of the place where the murder was perpetrated, all contributed to inspire men with horror for his enemies, and veneration for his character. The advocates for the customs, recognized by the constitutions of Clarendon, were silenced; the cause of the church once more flourished; and its liberties seemed to derive new life and additional vigour from the blood of their champion.'

While Henry II. was engaged in his contest with Becket, he commenced those operations which ended in the subjugation of Ireland. The early state of that country is succinctly, perspicuously, and, we believe, fairly described by Mr. Lingard in the following passage:

'That the ancient inhabitants of Ireland were chiefly of Celtic origin, is evident from the language still spoken by their descendants. Of their manners, polity, and religion, we may safely judge from analogy. There can be no doubt that they lived in the same rude and uncivilized state, in which their neighbours were discovered by the legions of Rome, and the teachers of Christianity. Books, indeed, have been published, which minutely describe the revolutions of Erin from a period anterior to the deluge: but it is evident that the more early portion of the Irish history of Keating rests on the same baseless authority as the British history of Geoffry, bardic fictions, and traditional genealogies. These, perhaps before, most probably after, the introduction of Christianity, were committed to writing: new embellishments were added by the fancy of copyists and reciters: and a few additional links, the creation of one or two imaginary personages, connected the first settlers in Ireland with the founders of the tower of Babel. Nor were such fables the peculiar growth of the soil of Erin. The Frank and the Norman, the Briton and the Saxon, found no more difficulty than the Irishman in tracing back their progenitors to the ark, and pointing out the very grandson of Noah, from whom each of them was lineally descended. Hence, if there were aught of truth in the traditions of these nations, it soon became so blended with fiction, that at the present day to distinguish one from the other must prove a hopeless as well as useless undertaking.

'Though the gospel had been preached in Ireland at a more early period, the general conversion of the natives had been reserved for the zeal of St. Patrick. This celebrated missionary was born in a village between Dunbarton and Glasgow, which has since assumed the name of Killpatrick. He commenced his labours in the year 432, and after a life of indefatigable exertion, died at an advanced age in 493. His disciples appear to have inherited the spirit of their teacher: churches and monasteries were successively founded: and every species of learning, known at the time, was assiduously cultivated. It was the peculiar happiness of these ecclesiastics to escape the visits of the barbarians, who

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in the fifth and sixth centuries depopulated and dismembered the western empire. When science was almost extinguished on the continent, it still emitted a faint light from the remote shores of Erin : strangers from Britain, Gaul, and Germany, resorted to the Irish schools, and Irish missionaries established monasteries and imparted instruction on the banks of the Danube, and amid the snows of the Apennines. During this period, and under such masters, the natives were gradually reclaimed from the ignorance and pursuits of savage life : but their civilization was retarded by the opposite influence of their national institutions : it was finally arrested by the invasions of the Northmen, who from the year 741 during more than two centuries, almost annually visited the island. These savages traversed it in every direction, went through their usual round of plunder, bloodshed, and devastation ; and at last occupying the sea-coasts, formed settlements at the mouths of the navigable rivers. The result was the same in Ireland as in Britain and Gaul. Hunted by the invaders into the forests, and compelled to earn a precarious subsistence by stealth and rapine, men forgot the duties of religion, lost their relish for the comforts of society, and quickly relapsed into the habits and vices of barbarism.

The exploits of Richard I. in the third crusade are related by Mr. Lingard with spirit and elegance : but we were disappointed in not finding his detail of them preceded by a fuller account of the circumstances attending the origin of those extraordinary expeditions, in which (to use the energetic expression of Anna Comnena) "Europe was torn up by the roots, and precipitated on Asia." We also expected from him some account of the fortunes and fate of the first and second crusades. We recollect that Mr. Gibbon mentions the adventures of the English monarch in Palestine among the subjects which presented themselves to his mind, while he was meditating on his choice of an historic theme.

In the hands of a person thoroughly master of the question, and possessing a command of style, a general history of the crusades would be singularly interesting and instructive. The extent and rapidity of the conquests made by Mohammed and his companions, and by their first successors, are unparalleled in history. The three Arabias were conquered by Mohammed : his companions then turned their arms against the whole civilized world ; and in them the prophecy of the angel to Agar, that their patriarch, "Ishmael, her son, should be a wild man ; that his arm would be against all men, and the arms of all men against him ; and that he would pitch his tents over against all his brethren," was literally verified. The disciples of Mohammed successively attacked Asia, Africa, and Europe. In every place they found Christians who were faithful to their religion, but in none, except France, a govern-
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ment that was true to its trust. Hence, with the single exception of their defeat by Charles Martel, under the walls of Tours, the Mohammedan arms were uniformly victorious. When their fury seemed to subside, and, in consequence of it, Europe began to breathe, the Seljuh Turks, issuing from the Caucasus, revived all the fanaticism and military ardour of the first followers of the impostor, fixed the seat of their empire at Iconium in Anatolia, and threatened from it every state of Europe. Peter the Hermit, and, after him, St. Bernard, animated the Christians with irresistible eloquence to repel the invaders, and deliver the Holy Land; and the success which attended their persuasions reminds us of the expression of Tacitus, when he begins to relate the fall of Otho: "*Susceperunt duo manipulares Imperium Romanum transferendum, et transtulerunt.*" — "Two private soldiers undertook to transfer the Roman empire, and they transferred it." The expeditions were ill planned, and the plans were ill executed: but, surely, sound policy would have suggested to the powers of Christendom, that the most likely method of repelling the invaders was that the Christians should carry their arms into the country of the enemy, and unite, for that purpose, in a general league. Had this plan been adopted by the princes of Germany, and the princes of the Morea, when Mohammed II. crossed the Hellespont, Constantinople would not have fallen to his arms. The success of the marine crusade of Pope Pius V., at the battle of Lepanto, in 1571, delivered Europe from the power of the Ottomans. It is observable that Lepanto is not far distant from Actium, on the shores of which Augustus obtained the victory that gave him the Roman world. Perhaps the consequences to Christendom of the victory at Lepanto were not less important.

The events in the reign of John, the immediate successor of Richard, are well told by Mr. Lingard. He relates, with becoming indignation, the shameful arrangement by which that monarch became a vassal to the Pope: a transaction which, he remarks, has heaped eternal infamy on the memory of the monarch. He justly observes, however, that the monarch shares it with the barons. In the petition which they presented almost immediately afterward to the Pope, they state to his Holiness that "it was not to the King, but to them, that he was indebted for his superiority over the English crown." The Pope, however, supported his vassal; and the result is known.

Every reader will peruse with pleasure, but, when he recollects that it comes from the hand of a Catholic priest, he will probably peruse with some surprize, the account which
Mr. Lin-

Mr. Lingard gives of the exactions of the Pope from the clergy, during the reign of Henry III. It is equally interesting and elegant: but it is too long for insertion in our pages. We prefer to make extracts from the author's account of the circumstances which led to the statute "*de tallagio non concedendo*," an event not sufficiently noticed by our historians, but perhaps more favourable to the rights of the subject than Magna Charta itself.

' Had Edward confined his rapacity to the clergy, he might perhaps have continued to despise their remonstrances; but the aids which he had annually raised on the freeholders, the tallages which he so frequently demanded of the cities and boroughs, and the additional duties which he extorted from the merchants, had excited a general spirit of discontent. Wool and hides were the two great articles of commerce, the exportation of which was allowed only to foreign merchants, and confined by law to eleven ports in England, and three in Ireland. In the beginning of his reign, the duty had been raised to half a mark on each sack of wool: but the royal wants perpetually increased: and during his quarrel with the King of France, he required five marks for every sack of fine, three for every sack of coarse wool, and five for every last of hides. On one occasion he extorted from the merchants a loan of the value of all the wool, which they exported; on two others, he seized and sold both wool and hides for his own profit. He even stretched his rapacious hands to the produce of the soil, and the live stock of his subjects: and to provision his army in Guienne, issued precepts to each sheriff to collect by assessment on the landholders of his county, a certain number of cattle, and two thousand quarters of wheat. Though this requisition was accompanied with a promise of future payment, the patience of the nation was exhausted. Consultations began to be held: and preparations were made for resistance. Edward had assembled two bodies of troops, with one of which he intended to sail over to Flanders, the other he destined to reinforce the army in Guienne. At Salisbury he gave the command of the latter to Bohun Earl of Hereford, the Constable, and to Bigod Earl of Norfolk, the marshal of England: but both these noblemen refused the appointment, on the alleged ground, that by their office they were bound only to attend on the King's person. Edward, in a paroxysm of rage, addressing himself to the mareschal, exclaimed, "By the everlasting God, Sir Earl, you shall go or hang."—"By the everlasting God, Sir King," replied Bigod, "I will neither go nor hang." Hereford and Norfolk immediately departed: they were followed by thirty bannerets, and fifteen hundred knights: and the royal officers, intimidated by their menaces, ceased to levy the purveyance. Edward saw that it was necessary to dissemble, and summoned some, requested others, of his military tenants to meet him in arms in London.

' The two earls, in concert with the Archbishop of Canterbury, had arranged their plan of resistance to the royal exactions. On the

the appointed day the constable, and John de Segrave, as deputy mareschal (Bigod himself was detained at home by sickness) attended the King's court: but when they were required to perform their respective duties, returned a refusal in writing, on the ground that they had not received a legal summons, but only a general invitation. Edward appointed a new constable and mareschal; and, to divide and weaken his opponents, sought to appease the clergy, and to move the commiseration of the people. He received the primate with kindness, ordered the restoration of his lands, and named him one of the council to Prince Edward, whom he had appointed regent. On a platform before the entrance of Westminster-hall, accompanied by his son, the Archbishop, and the Earl of Warwick, he harangued the people. He owned that the burthens, which he had laid on them, were heavy: but protested that it had not been less painful to him to impose, than it had been to them to bear them. Necessity was his only apology. His object had been to preserve himself and his liege men from the cruelty and rapacity of the Welsh, the Scots, and the French, who not only sought *his* crown, but also thirsted after *their* blood. In such case it was better to sacrifice a part than to lose the whole. "Behold," he concluded, "I am going to expose myself to danger for you. If I return, receive me again, and I will make you amends: if I fall, here is my son; place him on the throne; and his gratitude shall reward your fidelity." At these words the King burst into tears: the Archbishop was equally affected: the contagion ran through the multitude: and shouts of loyalty and approbation persuaded Edward that he might still depend on the allegiance of his people. This exhibition was followed by writs to the sheriffs, ordering them to protect the clergy from injury, and to maintain them in the possession of their lands. — 'But the tears which the Londoners had shed, during Edward's harangue, were soon dried up: considerations of interest suppressed the impulse of pity: and they gave assurances of their co-operation to the barons, who immediately retired to their respective counties. Both during their progress to the capital, and their return from it, they had marched in military array. But at the same time they had been careful to preserve the peace; and had threatened by proclamation to punish every lawless aggressor with the immediate amputation of a hand, or the loss of the head, according to the quality of the offence.

'The King was soon informed of these proceedings, and ordered the barons of the exchequer to disregard the prohibition. But in a few weeks his obstinacy was subdued by a succession of untoward events. The people and clergy universally favoured the cause of the earls: the Scots, after their victory at Stirling, had burst into the northern counties: and Edward himself lay at Ghent in Flanders; unable to return to the protection of the kingdom, and too weak to face the superior force of the French king. In these circumstances the lords who composed the council of the young Prince, invited the Archbishop, six prelates, twenty-three abbots and priors, the constable and mareschal and eight barons,

to treat with them on matters of the greatest moment, and summoned a parliament to meet at London a week later, and witness the confirmation of the two charters. In the conferences which preceded, the two parties, though opposed in appearance, had the same interests and the same views: a form of peace (so it was called) was speedily arranged; and to the ancient enactments of the charters were appended the following most important additions.'

Mr. Lingard copies these documents, and concludes his account of this important transaction in the subsequent terms:

'When the parliament assembled, these additions to the charters were received with enthusiasm: and, provided the King would assent to them, the laity voted him an eighth, the clergy of Canterbury a tenth, and the clergy of York a fifth. The Prince, by a public instrument, took the earls and their associates under his protection: and the lords of the council bound themselves to indemnify them against the effects of the royal displeasure. A common letter was written to the King, soliciting him to appease all differences by giving his assent, and assuring him that his faithful barons were ready at his command either to join him in Flanders, or to march against his enemies in Scotland: but at the same time requiring in a tone of defiance an answer against the sixth day of December. It cost the haughty mind of Edward several struggles before he could prevail on himself to submit: three days were spent in useless deliberation and complaints but at last with a reluctant hand he signed the confirmation of the two charters with the additional articles, and a separate pardon for the earls and their followers.

'This was perhaps the most important victory which had hitherto been gained over the crown. By investing the people with the sole right of raising the supplies, it armed them with the power of checking the extravagance, and controuling the despotism, of their monarchs.'

Mr. Lingard is more favourable than Hume to the claim of Edward I. to imperial sovereignty over Scotland; and he professes to discover much fable in the account given of it by that historian, and much exaggeration in his detail of the exploits and character of Wallace. Mr. L.'s narratives of the marriage of Edward IV., the murder of Edward V., and the conduct of Richard III., are very curious, and deserve the attention of future writers on these subjects. His authorities and arguments appear to us to overthrow completely the opposite system of Mr. Walpole in his *Historic Doubts*. He also presents his readers with an accurate view of the events which produced the statutes of *Præmunire and Provisors*; and his remarks on them are just and liberal.

We have now endeavoured to give such a view of the work before us, and such extracts from it, consistently with our limits, as will enable our readers to form a notion of its general merit.

merit. That, through the whole of it, the writer has consulted the original historians, is evident; and this, even standing singly, is no small praise. It has, however, other claims to our approbation: the arrangement of it is good, the narrative is clear, and the style is elegant. It is obviously formed on that of Mr. Gibbon: but, while it does not possess the richness or the point of that historian, it has little of his affectation, and nothing of his obscurity. On the contrary, it is eminently perspicuous; and we do not recollect an instance, in which we have found a second reading of a sentence necessary to comprehend its meaning. Yet we wish that, in the remaining part of his work, Mr. Lingard would endeavour to conform his style more to that of the writers in the reign of Queen Anne, and even to that of our earlier authors. Like Mr. Gibbon, he supposes, in some instances, more previous information in his readers than he has a right to expect from them; and to this point, should a new edition of his work be required, we beg leave to call his attention.

Hitherto, Mr. L. must have suffered rather from the scantiness of his materials: but he has now reached a period in which he must begin to feel himself oppressed by their number, magnitude, and discordance. The printed stock is ample; it bears, however, no proportion to the manuscript-treasures preserved in our public libraries, but too much hidden in them, and too little consulted by our historians. These, if Mr. Lingard wishes to give us a perfect history of the remaining period of his work, he must revolve; and we also hope that he will consult the valuable sources of information which continental documents afford, and which, with a few trifling exceptions, our own annalists have almost entirely neglected. Here, we particularly recommend the reign of Henry VIII. to his exertion: for it is the link which connects the antient with the modern history of our country. The introduction of Greek and Latin literature into England, and her separation from the church of Rome, render it an æra of singular importance: but the history of it has not been sufficiently investigated. We trust that we shall now receive a full and finished report of it from Mr. Lingard's pen; but it will require his particular care in every respect; and he must not be in haste to publish. It should be deeply imprinted on his mind that an author, who writes for future times, must consult the expectations of the public more than the wishes of his publisher; and that no history has ever reached posterity which has not been the fruit of extensive and profound research, of much labour, and of long and continued meditation.

ART. X. *Physiological Lectures*, exhibiting a general View of Mr. Hunter's Physiology, and of his Researches in Comparative Anatomy. Delivered before the Royal College of Surgeons, in the Year 1817. By John Abernethy, F.R.S. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 352. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

OUR professional readers are probably all well acquainted with the tenure on which the Hunterian Museum was given by the Parliament to the College of Surgeons; and they will know that it was in conformity with one of the conditions that the annual lectures are delivered which, during the season of 1817, were allotted to Mr. Abernethy, and which he has here presented to the public. It is naturally to be expected that a lecturer, under these circumstances, should be disposed to look with peculiar respect on the character and acquirements of Mr. Hunter, and to regard them with the eye rather of an advocate than of an impartial spectator; but, while we allow considerable latitude to these feelings, and should be much disinclined to question them if restrained within moderate limits, it is impossible not to lament over that perversion of sentiment, which leads Mr. Hunter's admirers to deem it a necessary tribute to his fame to attack with other weapons than those of argument, every one who induced to maintain opinions or hypotheses contrary to those of their master. We lament to see this done by any man; but we *deeply* lament when it is done by Mr. Abernethy. What may have been his personal griefs, whether he may have received any particular provocation, or whether there be any schism in the College, of all this we are ignorant: such circumstances, if they exist, may palliate the errors of the individual, but they cannot excuse those of the author. Unacquainted, however, as we are with any private history respecting the work before us, we must consider it as it now stands, and must let it rest on its own merits.

Some pages are devoted to a warm eulogium on the abilities of Mr. Hunter as a physiologist, and especially as a comparative anatomist, and on his indefatigable industry in the formation of his museum; an eulogium which we believe to be very justly merited. The author then descends into the region of angry controversy; and it would appear that, on a former occasion, he had supported Mr. Hunter's doctrines on the subject of life, and illustrated them by some speculations of his own. Mr. Hunter's opinions on this point, and still more the language in which he clothed them, are generally admitted to have been very peculiar and abstruse; often ingenious, but seldom the direct result of the generalization of facts; and in short to be of that very species which, although

we might suppose them to be correct, we should regard as lying very open to criticism, and such as we could not expect to be implicitly or even generally adopted. Mr. Abernethy's additions, as far as we learn their nature from this volume, are much more liable to animadversion than the tenets of his master; yet he betrays extreme impatience and irritability because they have been disputed, and even condescends to repel the attack by an appeal to prejudices, and by something that (we are concerned to say) borders at least on abuse.

Mr. Hunter accounted for the specific actions of life by supposing them to be owing to the operation of what he terms a vital principle; something superadded to the body, and not essential to its physical existence or organization. He, however, very prudently said little respecting the nature or essence of this principle: while Mr. Abernethy, outstepping the caution or reserve of his preceptor, has ventured to designate it as a kind of subtile matter, something analogous to the electric or magnetic fluid. We acknowledge ourselves to be much more disposed to rest on the opinion of Mr. Hunter; yet, although we do not admit the force of Mr. Abernethy's speculations, we see no reason why we should quarrel with him on the subject, or stigmatize him as either a fool or a knave. We do not, indeed, think that life can be the result of either the electric or the magnetic principle: but, if any man conceives that he can prove this, it is a fair topic for philosophical research; and we trust that we shall always listen with perfect candour to any arguments that can be adduced. This charity, however, Mr. Abernethy does not extend to those who are not convinced by Mr. Hunter's authority, or by his works; on the contrary, he speaks of them with a feeling of rancour that is seldom manifested in the writings of modern physiologists. They are invidiously designated as 'a party,' intitled 'modern sceptics,' and tauntingly styled 'writers by profession;' their morals and good sense are questioned; and they are assimilated to a description of persons, whom we are taught to avoid as maintaining principles at once dangerous and absurd. When we reflect how extremely intricate are all questions connected with causation, and how very little we know about the nature or existence of those subtile essences which have been called in to aid our conception of complicated phænomena, ought we to expect that such language as the following would be employed on the occasion?

'Mr. Hunter's opinions may be denied, but cannot be refuted. It is, however, easier to maintain a proposition diametrically opposite to truth, than one originating in any intermediate degree of error. Those, therefore, who attempt to account for the vital

phænomena upon any other supposition than the one I have had the honour of advocating in your presence, would lead us into such a maze of absurdity, that reason and common sense forbid us to follow them.'—

'I will not condescend to particularize or parry the absurd attempts that have been made to ridicule Mr. Hunter's theory of life. I will only enquire why we are to be prohibited from thinking, if we conform to the most approved rules of ratiocination? Why do these sceptics try to ridicule what they cannot refute? and whence arises the irritability they have displayed? The nature of this kind of irritability is, indeed, well known to physiologists, it is but the common consequence of debility when excited. But what is the exciting cause, what provocation has been given to them? It must be as I surmised; they have opinions, and are irritated at any thing contradictory which they cannot oppugn. The very term of superaddition is discordant to their ears; the supposition that there may be any thing which is not an object of sense, or actual demonstration, torments them; they themselves perceive, that the superaddition of life to structure may, indeed, warrant the supposition of a substance having the properties of perception and volition being superadded to life; and that there may be "more things in heaven and earth, than they in their philosophy dreamt of." Should such opinions gain ground, the privileges of scepticism seem endangered; their proselytes may no longer receive with perfect confidence the assurance of philosophical liberty, the assurance that, because they are sensitive and rational creatures, true philosophy therefore consists in gratifying their senses, and acting as their reason dictates, for their own advantage, independently of all other considerations. Wherefore do they tell us, that we know not why a muscle acts, or a nerve feels, and that both are properties of organization? Is it not because they wish to persuade others, as perhaps they may have brought themselves to believe, "that when the brains are out, the man is dead?" Yet surely, it does not necessarily follow, that perceptivity and consciousness are annulled, because those actions have ceased by which they have hitherto been affected or manifested.'

The reader will discern, from these quotations, that Mr. Abernethy did not sit down to the inquiry with either his temper or his understanding in a state the best adapted for the discovery and the communication of truth. How singular it must appear to the calm observer, to perceive the writer of the above paragraph upbraiding his opponents with the employment of ridicule and the manifestation of spleen!

The total number of lectures contained in this volume is seven, and we have yet noticed only the first of the series. It is, however, the most important of them, or at least that which it is the most important for us to discuss, as being the one which gives its peculiar character to the work. The other lectures are on various topics of a detached nature, which

which seem to have been selected either as likely to be peculiarly interesting to the audience, or as being those points to which Mr. Hunter's attention was particularly directed, and which of course compose the most prominent parts of his museum. The author repeatedly reminds his auditors that he is to be regarded merely as the expositor of Mr. Hunter's opinions; and that the tenets advanced in these lectures are either simply the doctrines of his master, or the consequences that may be legitimately or necessarily deduced from them. Considering this work as consisting of addresses delivered to an audience of professional men, who may be supposed to have been assembled rather from curiosity and the hope of amusement than the desire of improvement, we may imagine the lectures to be very much what Mr. Abernethy intended that they should be; miscellaneous performances, containing a great fund of information, without much method in the arrangement or much precision in the statement of them.

On the whole, these lectures (we now mean particularly to speak of the six latter) give us a higher opinion of the author's information than of his judgment; they display an extensive range of knowledge, but certainly not much power of discrimination; and, while many parts are interesting and striking, we observe a general deficiency of taste and elegance. Mr. Abernethy's professional talents are well known to be of the highest order, his mind is amply stored, and his memory appears to be retentive: but his powers of reasoning, or of deducing a conclusion from his premises, are obviously defective; of metaphysics he is evidently ignorant; he is better adapted for an advocate than for a judge; and his temperament is too irritable for him to wield the weapons of irony or ridicule.

ART. XI. *Mr. Hunt's Translation of Tasso's Jerusalem Delivered.*
[Article concluded from the Review for June last.]

ON mature consideration, we deem it right to acquit ourselves of a contingent promise given in a former Number, to lay before our readers some farther specimens of this new version of Tasso from the pen of Mr. Hunt; whose bold though unequal powers, as a translator, often approach nearer and more frequently do injustice to the grandeur and spirit of his original, than any translation of the more modern classics which we possess.

That this is one of the few instances which shew that great merit and inferiority may possibly be ¹ together in
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the execution of the same work, we have before intimated ; and we shall now more clearly point out the mode in which they should be compared, with the final estimate to be expected from a fair and candid examination. We must at the same time leave much to the disputable ground of taste; reserving only to ourselves the office of holding the balance, while impartiality may decide.

If we consider the numerous versions which have appeared for the purpose of conveying the genius and merits of other languages into our own, we cannot think that, among these, the Italian has been peculiarly fortunate in the admirers who have bestowed this favour on it; since men of taste and learning, rather than of high poetical powers, have generally undertaken the task of exhibiting its poets to our view. We shall run no hazard in the observation, that we consider English literature to be far from being as much enriched with fine specimens of Italian genius as with translations from the languages of Greece and Rome. The fact may be chiefly attributed to the study and imitation of the antient classics soon after their restoration in Italy; when, from imitating these models of excellence, a desire was soon awakened to more generally diffuse their beauties through the medium of modern tongues: but only men of great and original poetic powers aspired to the office of *interpreters of the gods*; and, despairing of successfully emulating their prototypes, they rather chose to unite their own name and language to these undisputed heirs of ages. Pope, Dryden, and Rowe, with others of decided superiority, no doubt imagined (however erroneously) that they should have a better chance for perpetuating a name in company with the authors whom they loved, than if it rested merely on the strength of their own powerful intellect; and thus Homer, Virgil, and Lucan, met with *poets* for translators more congenial to their nature than the later authors of Italy can boast. As, however, there existed a species of rivalry in the literature of *modern* nations, real genius has been mostly occupied in productions of its own: while others, not naturally poetical, deigned to invoke the muses only to transfuse the song of the stranger into our native numbers. We are by no means disposed to feel angry at this distribution of poetic powers; since the partiality of our genius to its mother-tongue has produced that strength and melody of versification which are perfectly unequalled in any single modern language: but, owing so much as we do to the early influence of Italian literature over our own, we cannot but regret that we have not *returned* in translation more of that poetic spirit which we have received from it in imitation.

imitation. This reasoning must plead somewhat in extenuation of our not possessing a high tone of originality in versions of a modern date, equal to those of Fairfax and Harrington; and, as the translation now before us, though diffuse, is faithful and correct, it would seem invidious to require more from Mr. Hunt than from his *fellow-labourers in the same vineyard*, who sang the recovery of the holy sepulchre from the profane hands of the Saracens. “*Non omnia possumus omnes*” may be justly applied to the numerous versifiers of Tasso; a poet who united in himself those various qualifications, which were only to be found singly in the minds of others: but, could the poetic sweetness of Fairfax, the simplicity and steadiness of Hoole, and the energy of Hunt, have been happily combined in one translator, we might flatter ourselves with possessing that which we cannot at present boast, a just idea of the *Jerusalem Delivered* in an English version.

With these preliminary observations and distinctions, we proceed to give a few select quotations from this highly interesting poem. The episode in the second book, where Sophronia declares that she stole the image of the Virgin, is very fine, with slight exceptions. She is seized, and condemned to be burnt alive.

- ‘ Stings to the tyrant’s soul her words convey :
Threats murmur’d deep, his savage heart betray.
No more remains the hope of pardon now,
From lofty mind, fair form, or modest brow ;
And love oppos’d, mistaking in his art
The shield of beauty to an iron heart.
- ‘ Seiz’d is the maid, and doom’d to penal flames ;
So the fierce despot’s cruel will proclaims.
Her veil, her robe, are stripp’d ; her tender arms
Rude cords confine ; beneath such rude alarms,
Her heart heav’d quick ; her cheek’s bright roses fled,
And purest white replac’d the lively red ;
So soft, so brilliant, glow’d the whiteness there,
Not pallid did she seem, but wond’rous fair.’

Her lover, Olindo, hearing of her situation, bursts through the crowd, and declares himself the author of the wrong :

- ‘ Touch’d by his words, her eyes Sophronia rais’d,
With pitying glances on the youth she gaz’d ;
“ Why com’st thou hither, hapless youth !” she cried :
“ What fate can urge thee, or what madness guide ?
What ? Need I then thy aid my fate to bear,
And one weak mortal’s utmost fury dare ?
Within my woman’s breast, a manly heart
There lives, that burns to act the hero’s part.

One life alone the tyrant's rage shall feed,
I ask no solace, and no comrade need."

' Thus to the youth she spake, but fail'd to bend
The settled purpose of her gen'rous friend.
Oh ! sight divine where fond contention prove
Exalted virtue, and sublimer love,
Where nought the victor hopes for in the strife
But death, and nought the vanquish'd fears but life ! —

' He gives the sign ! his slaves with ready hands
Seize the fond boy, and bind with fatal bands.
Soon back to back the beauteous pair are tied,
Not front to front ; such bliss his fate denied.'

Olindo then continues thus :

' " Since adverse Heav'n denies the nuptial bed,
I join thee in the mansions of the dead.
Thy pains alone my anguish'd soul annoy,
For dying at thy side, I die with joy ;
And oh ! thrice welcome would my suff'rings come,
And I would hail my happy martyrdom,
If with thy breast my faithful breast might join,
That my heart's latest throb might answer thine,
And thus at length united, though in death,
Thy sighs I might inhale, and suck thy parting breath.

She then reproves him :

' " Think of thy sins, sweet friend, and call to mind
What bright rewards to virtue are assign'd.
Relying on high Heaven thy sufferings meet,
And light will be thy pains ; thy torments sweet.
On wings of hope to Heaven's bright mansions rise ;
See dawning glory bursts from all the skies ;
The sun, fair emblem of immortal day,
Points to his golden throne and calls us hence away."

We are happy to ascribe much spirit and beauty to these lines.

Though Tasso was a warm admirer of the ancients, we do not think that he is altogether so great an imitator as he is represented to have been ; for, indeed, if we believe all Hunt's parallels, which he has drawn with mathematical precision from Virgil and Homer, we leave Tasso little excellence of his own. Independently of accidental resemblance of thought and manner, Tasso had a very powerful memory which appears to have been too strong for his own imagination in some instances, and to have betrayed him into involuntary resemblances, or imitations if we choose so to term them : but he was no professed imitator, and was even the less original on this account. If we take any two superior authors

authors on the same ground, and carefully run parallels between them, though they shall have known nothing of each other, we shall be able to make out these *ideal imitations*.— We may therefore suppose Tasso to have written the following Description of Night very much from his own feelings, as well as from the cause before mentioned :

‘ ’Twas night ; the breathing winds, the waters cease,
And thro’ the still creation all is peace.
Each being that has life, the scaly train
That skim the rivers or the boundless main,
The beasts that roam in herds, or far from men,
Tenant in trackless wilds their lonely den,
Wrapt in the arms of sweet oblivion lie ;
The feather’d tribes, the wanderers of the sky,
Beneath the silence of the secret gloom
Close their light wing, and fold their painted plume.
All sought repose, with daily toil opprest,
They eas’d their wearied hearts, and steep’d their cares in rest.
But not the Christian legions nor their chief
Can sink to rest, nor find in sleep relief,
So strong within their restless bosoms burn
The anxious hopes of morn’s desired return,
With whose first beam their eager steps must bend
To that blest goal, their glorious labours end.
They watch incessant, if some dawning ray
Shoot forth, to chase the shades of night away.’

Mr. Hunt must surely have wished, in some of these lines, to shew us most distinctly the difference between a poet and a translator. Perhaps his version of the account of the Christian army approaching to Jerusalem, after they had been engaged during more than five years in wars and hardship, has succeeded better :

‘ The eager bands unconscious of their speed,
With winged feet, and winged hearts proceed:
But when the sun now high advancing hurl’d
His noon-tide flood of radiance o’er the world,
Lo ! on their sight Jerusalem arose !
The sacred towers, each pointing finger shows :
Jerusalem was heard from every tongue,
Jerusalem, a thousand voices rung.
Thus some bold mariners, a hardy band,
Whose vent’rous search explores a distant land,
And braving dubious seas, and unknown skies,
The faithless winds, and treacherous billows tries ;
When first the wish’d for shore salutes their eye,
Bursts from their lips at once the joyful cry.
Each shows the welcome soil, and pleas’d at last,
Forgets his weary way, and dangers past.’ —

‘ Words half suppress escaped, and accents low,
 And broken sobs, and sighs of heart-felt woe,
 As in one breath their joy, their grief began,
 Through the wide air a rustling murmur ran.
 Such sounds are heard when thro’ the leafy boughs
 Of some thick wood the blast of autumn blows.
 Or when th’ excited waves, with hoarser roar,
 Lash the chaf’d rocks, and hiss along the shore.’

The reverend translator appears to have exerted great spirit in the sublimer parts of his subject, and this is as it ought to be. We should be happy to believe that he entered on the translation from the same motive which excited Tasso to the work itself, viz. a sense of its piety and grandeur, rather than from the plea of idleness, which he has assigned.

As the army has now reached Jerusalem, let us see how they proceed with the Saracens. They are fortunate enough to possess a beautiful amazon, named Clorinda, who performs great exploits in favour of the unbelievers :

‘ Onward meanwhile the brave Clorinda prest,
 Tancred to face, and set her lance in rest :
 They meet, they strike, they shiver with the stroke
 Their brittle spears ; burst by th’ unwonted shock,
 The thongs that brac’d her helm asunder flew ;
 With naked head she stood expos’d to view ;
 Loose to the wind her golden tresses stream’d,
 And ’mid the storm of war, the sun of beauty beam’d.
 Flash’d her bright eyes with anger, stern and wild,
 Yet lovely still — *how* lovely had she smil’d !
 Where Tancred, does thy sight, thy memory rove !
 What ! know’st thou not the features of thy love !
 Lo ! she whom once thine eyes inraptur’d view’d,
 Her thirst refreshing at the lonely flood !
 Her painted buckler, and her far-fam’d crest,
 Had caus’d no tumults in the hero’s breast :
 But when her face he saw, the sudden shock
 O’erpower’d his sense ; he stood transform’d to rock.
 She cover’d as she could her head, and flew
 To recommence the fight ; the knight withdrew.’

Though he has little hopes of taking her prisoner, he determines to challenge her to single combat :

‘ At length, since pity he despairs to move,
 Resolving, ere he dies, to tell his love,
 That thus the cruel fair at least may know
 Her anger vented on a suppliant foe,
 He thus began : “ Thou who of all our host
 Dost wreak thy fatal rage on me the most :
 Retire we from this scene of mingled fight,
 And prove, apart from all, each other’s might ;

Thus,

Thus, unimpeded shall our prowess shine,
 And Tancred's arm be singly match'd with thine."
 The challenge she accepts, and pleas'd recedes,
 That naked is her head she little heeds :
 Heartless he follows ; quickly stood the maid
 In act for fight, and wav'd her flashing blade ;
 " Hold," he exclaim'd ; " 'twere prudent to decide
 The terms of combat, 'ere the fight be tried."
 She staid her lifted hand ; Love's trembling slave,
 Thro' desperation at that moment brave,
 Cried, " Be our terms, since peace thou wilt not give,
 To pierce my heart, and let me cease to live ;
 My heart, no more my own, if thou deny
 That it should longer live, will gladly die :
 The hour invites, 'twere Pity's gen'rous deed
 To give me death ; nor I the stroke impede ;
 Behold, I fold my arms, my breast display
 Unguarded. Why then does thy hand delay ?
 Would'st thou I speed the work ? my ready hand
 Shall strip my breast-plate off, if thou command."

We shall now give the death-scene of the sultan Solyman as a specimen of the author's powers, with that occasional exaggeration and false taste which we have mentioned, and then conclude. The Sultan is a sort of Hector to the losing party ; and, when he sees the great Indian King Adrastus fall by the hand of Rinaldo, he becomes troubled :

' The cheek of Solyman grew pale with awe :
 His heart was troubled when *that stroke* he saw :
 Th' approach of death his soul prophetic knew ;
 All dubious and irresolute he grew.
 Strange case for him ; but not to man is given
 To strive against th' eternal laws of Heaven.
 As when upon his couch the sick man lies,
 And doubtful visions float before his eyes,
 To run, to fly, his palsied limbs he strains,
 But useless all his efforts, all his pains ;
 Strive though he may, his hands, his feeble feet
 The soul's impatient wish refuse to meet.
 Or if to loose his fettered tongue he tries,
 Alike 'tis vain : nor voice, nor words arise :
 To force his spirits thus, to rouse his might,
 The Sultan strove, and fain would dare the fight.
 But now no more his wonted courage glows,
 Nor in his altered self himself he knows.
 Whate'er of fire awoke within his breast,
 That rising fire a secret dread repress :
 His dubious soul conflicting passions sway,
 Nor yet of flight he thinks, nor yet gives way.
 While in suspense his spirit thus was held,
 The conqueror came, and as he came

(So thought his foe) all things of mortal mould
 In swiftness, fury, vigour uncontroul'd.
 Resistance none the Sultan made ; nor yet
 His kingly greatness could in death forget ;
 He shrunk not from the blow ; he pour'd no groan,
 And all he did was noble, great, his own.'

All this is grandly conceived, and has great truth in nature, with the sort of poetry that Shakspeare himself would not have been ashamed to acknowledge. This passage alone proclaims that Tasso was a great master of the passions and characters of men, and that he could delineate the softest as well as the boldest feelings of our nature. As the exercise of the power of comparison (in spite of Mrs. Slipslop) is at once so useful and so delightful a source of knowlege, in literature as well as in life, we naturally turn from considering what is before us to whatever may be connected with the same subject. This liberty requires no apology in the present instance, because the translator himself invites us to the task by his critical observations on the labours of his predecessors ; the unfavourable tendency of which he states as the cause of his having offered this additional version to the public. Fairfax is too free with touches of his own poetical pencil, and the copy of Hoole is unfaithful to the original ! There was still, therefore, a possibility of drawing a more just and true likeness of Tasso ; and this Mr. Hunt has attempted by a strict fidelity, and an ample minuteness of detail, which have unfortunately led him into a diffuseness of style that adds greatly to the bulk, but nothing to the beauty of the original. While this is the most serious, we wish that we could denominate it the *only* charge to which Mr. Hunt's labours are obnoxious : but he evidently betrays a want of good taste in the use of language, as well as of metaphor, which is by no means favourable to poetic composition. We have on the other hand much to redeem these striking defects, in the strength and fire of description which pervade the nobler parts of the poem, and which have not been surpassed in any modern translations that we have perused. If this species of inequality of style leaves much to the variable opinion of readers, it convinces us at the same time that a real poet has little chance of appearing to advantage in a foreign garb ; and that those, who would wish to appreciate rightly the genius and language of Italy, must apply to the earliest masters who led the way to the revival of letters in Europe. So many of them are almost inimitable in an English dress, that the very attempt is like that of analyzing those finer substances which are only lost in the process. Thus the pastor

uarini and
Bonarelli

Bonarelli are relished alone in the originals ; and the laurels of Bembo, Ariosto, and Casa, are no longer the same when transplanted to another clime : while it requires all the learning and taste of Sir William Jones to make even Vida agreeable to us. In another light, this inability of doing justice to earlier poets arises from the cause of the first offerings of every nation at the shrine of the Muse being the sweetest and the best ; and, like youth itself, which boasts only one period of truth and passion, poesy always burns the brightest in the beginning, and vividly places before our eyes as in a mirror the beauty and freshness of surrounding nature. This is the only true æra of national poetic character, which stamps the future strength and excellence of the art : but, exhausting much of its early spirit and sensibilities, it leaves little more than the cares of *imitation* and *versifying* for its later years.

ART. XII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for 1818. Part II.*

[Article concluded from the Review for April last.]

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, &c.

ON the Urinary Organs and Secretions of some of the Amphibia.
By John Davy, M. D. F. R. S.—Dr. D. has availed himself of the opportunity for the investigation of this subject afforded by his present residence in Ceylon. His inquiries, however, are confined to four natural families ; namely, Serpents, Lizards, the Turtle, and the Tortoise. The only remarkable facts in the serpents are that the urinary ducts usually contain a white matter, which is also found in soft lumps in the receptacle. This is, in truth, *solid urine* : it takes three weeks or a month in collecting, and is at last expelled with unusual exertion. Large snakes void masses of this solid urine, which weigh three or four ounces : it is nearly pure uric, or uric acid : it was indissoluble in muriatic acid : it afforded the pink residue with nitric acid that is peculiar to uric acid ; and it was soluble in alkaline lixivium acid, precipitable by muriatic acid. The lizards examined were the Alligator, the Iguana Gecko, and the Iguana Kobbera-guion. The urine is nearly pure uric acid. In the urine of the turtle and tortoise, Dr. D. found flakes of uric acid.

On a Mal-conformation of the Uterine System in Women. By A. B. Granville, M. D. F. R. S. — A woman, who died six or seven days after delivery, had been suspected to have been affected by a disease of the heart. On dissection, an aneurism
of

of the aorta was found, with an enlargement of the heart; and the bronchiæ were beautifully lined with a membrane, entirely detachable from the inner surface, without deranging its tubiform structure: yet there had been no previous pulmonary disease. The womb was enlarged to four times its natural size, and was immersed in serous liquid. The spermatic and uterine vessels, the Fallopian tube, and the ovarium, with its surrounding peritoneal folds, were found on the right side, but not on the left: but the rudiments, or more properly the remains, of these parts, were discovered in the cavity of the pelvis.

New Experiments on some of the Combinations of Phosphorus. By Sir H. Davy, LL. D. F. R. S. — This paper is not easily susceptible of abridgment: but the principal facts determined are, that phosphoric acid is compounded of 100 phosphorus, and 134.5 by weight of oxygen: — that the proportional or equivalent volume in which chlorine combines is to that in which oxygen combines as two to one, or that ten grains of phosphorus, in forming the white sublimate or perchlorine, ought to combine with between 76 and 80 cubical inches of chlorine: — that the oxygen in phosphorous acid is half of that which occurs in phosphoric acid: — that 18 grains of phosphorus, converted into phosphoric acid by combustion in oxygen, require for their saturation 47 grains of hydrate of potassa: — that hypophosphorous acid contains 7.69 phosphorus and 2.54 oxygen, or about half of the quantity of oxygen contained in phosphorous acid, *i.e.* 74.43 to 1.5; — and that, taking the supposition that the hydrogen in water is to the oxygen as two to 15, the number 15 affords easily calculable multiples; whence the series of proportions in the acids of phosphorus are in

Hypophosphorous acid,	Phosphorus 45	Oxygen 15.
Phosphorous acid,	Phosphorus 45	Oxygen 30.
Phosphoric acid,	Phosphorus 45	Oxygen 60.
Or, hypophosphorous acid, 263.	Phosphoric acid, two proportions,	
	210.	
	Phosphuretted hydrogen, one proportion,	53.

New Experimental Researches on some of the leading Doctrines of Caloric; particularly on the Relation between the Elasticity, Temperature, and latent Heat of different Vapours; and on Thermometric Admeasurement and Capacity. By Andrew Ure, M. D. — Dr. Ure prosecutes the investigation of Professor Black's discoveries of latent heat, by inquiring into the elastic forces of vapours, and gives formulæ to determine these

these forces at any temperature. He describes a very simple apparatus for ascertaining the elastic forces at any temperature, from zero of Fahrenheit to much higher degrees of heat than even Betancourt reached. The apparatus of Dr. Ure obviates the source of errors from a large and variable space occupied by the vapour, and supersedes Biot's singular remedy, besides other advantages. To one end of a recurved tube, filled with quicksilver, is fixed a piece of a barometer-tube, for half an inch space of vapour, with a delicate thermometer within it; and the flame of Argand's lamps is to be applied to the shoulder of this barometer-tube, to convert spirit, æther, water, oil, &c. into vapour. The depressions of the quicksilver by the vapour must then be noted, with the corresponding temperature of the thermometer. Though the liquid and the incumbent vapour are thus always restricted to the summit of the barometer-tube, the progressive range of elasticity may be measured from zero of Fahrenheit to one hundred or even two hundred degrees above the boiling point of water; from an elasticity of 0.07 of an inch, to that which is capable of sustaining 14 feet or even 36 of mercury. This apparatus was suspended from a lofty window ceiling, and placed in a truly vertical position by means of a plumb-line; and the thermometers of Creighton were read off with a lens, so that one-tenth of a degree could be distinguished. It is essential to heat the vessels with extreme circumspection and slowness; one performance of the experiment occupies, on an average, seven hours.

Among a variety of important information in the excellent paper before us, Dr. Ure asserts that the expansion of solids and liquids is not unequal, as declared by other authors; for that homogenous solids, and mercury, proceed almost exactly *pari passu* in their rates of expansion by heat. A pyrometer is described, by which the experiments were performed to prove this position.

A chapter is next given 'on the Doctrines of Capacity,' as connected with the investigation; and another on the latent heat of vapours, in which some supposed errors of Crawford, Dalton, De Luc, and Black are corrected. The memoir of Dr. Ure is terminated with a proposal for a machine or engine adapted for many domestic purposes, by making a small portion of a liquid, viz. alcohol in vapour, imitate "the ceaseless circulation and restless activity of life;" or, on a larger scale, for impelling the piston of a steam-engine.

A Description of the Teeth of the Delphinus Gangeticus. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart., V.P. R.S. — The teeth and jaws furnish the most remarkable character of this species of

Delphinus. A drawing is given to shew the figure and mode of growth of the teeth, which in both jaws amount to 120— This paper is not very interesting.

Description of an acid Principle prepared from the Lithic or Uric Acid. By William Prout, M.D. — This author has examined the well-known purple substance, produced by the action of nitric acid on many sorts of urinary concretions; and it is shewn in this paper to be a compound of ammonia and a peculiar acid: which acid may be obtained by digesting pure uric acid in diluted nitric acid. The excess of nitric acid is then to be neutralized with ammonia, and the whole slowly concentrated by evaporation and crystallization, affording urate of ammonia. By muriatic or sulphuric acid, this acid is obtainable in a separate state. Chlorine as well as iodine also produce this acid; which, from the compounds with most bases being of a red or purple colour, Dr. Wollaston advises to be called *purpuric acid*. Concentrated nitric acid dissolves uric acid with effervescence; and, if the acid be in excess, and heat be applied, a portion of the purpuric acid is decomposed: ammonia is produced; and, on carrying off the excess of nitric acid by heat, the purpurate of ammonia is formed. The agency of chlorine is similar. The purpuric acid and its compounds probably constitute the basis of many animal and vegetable colours; and the pink sediment of urine is perhaps owing to purpurate of ammonia, or of soda.

On the Structure of the poisonous Fangs of Serpents. By Thomas Smith, Esq. F.R.S. — The poison flows from a slit or suture extending along the convex side, from the foramen at the base to the aperture near the point of the fangs. This structure is observed in the Cobra de Capello, in the common viper of India, and in other serpents.

The first part of these Transactions for the present year has reached us.

ART. XIII. *Narrative of a Residence in Algiers; comprising a Geographical and Historical Account of the Regency; Biographical Sketches of the Dey and his Ministers; Anecdotes of the late War; Observations on the Relations of the Barbary States with the Christian Powers; and the Necessity and Importance of their complete Subjugation.* By Signor Pananti. With Notes and Illustrations by Edward Blaquiére, Esq., R. N., Author of "Letters from the Mediterranean." * 4to. pp. 470. 2l. 2s. Boards. Colburn. 1818.

* See M. R. Vol. lxxiii. p. 38.

ART. XIV. *A Narrative of the Expedition to Algiers, in the Year 1816, under the Command of Admiral Lord Viscount Exmouth. By Mr. A. Salamé, a Native of Alexandria, in Egypt, Interpreter in His Britannic Majesty's Service for the Oriental Languages, who accompanied his Lordship for the subsequent Negotiations with the Dey. Published by Permission. 8vo. pp. 370. 15s. Boards. Murray. 1819.*

WE have combined these two articles rather from the similarity of their titles, than from any uniformity to be traced in the execution of the works themselves. Some elucidations, however, may, nevertheless, be gained by this juxtaposition; and to what extent the reader will easily surmise from the general character of each, which we shall proceed to deliver before we enter more fully on their contents.

The original author of the former volume is an Italian gentleman, who emigrated to this country during the storms of the French revolution, and resided here for some years. The restoration of peace tempted him, to his cost, and apparently to his lasting sorrow, to quit this asylum: for, on his return to Italy by sea, he was captured by Algerine corsairs, near the island of St. Pietro, off the Sardinian coast; by which unfortunate calamity he lost his liberty, and we have gained this quarto volume. He was persuaded, it appears, 'by false and interested friends,' to undertake this ill-fated expedition: but what interest they had in getting rid of his company, we are not informed. We must observe that the manner in which Signor Pananti writes of England, his adopted home during many years, is highly creditable to his feelings; and the more pleasing, perhaps, to the English reader, from the rarity of such an occurrence among those persons who were protected by us during the late wars. His compliments are undoubtedly somewhat of the warmest, and his adulation occasionally a little fulsome; but, as we have such ample reason for complaining of the contrary extreme, we will not be so fastidious as to find fault with this excess. We cannot but suspect that this very characteristic of his writings has made his translator, Mr. Blaquiere, regard him with a greater degree of complacency than his merits as an author: which appear to us to be much over-rated by that gentleman, as far at least as the present specimen of authorship is concerned. His name, we are told, stands high among the living poets of Italy. As to his 'epigrammatic humour,' we should presume, from the work before us, that the author confines the use of it most strictly to his poetical productions; since the trite stories and dull witticisms, "*à-propos* to nothing," with which some parts of this narrative are

bespattered, are as nearly allied to Euclid's Elements as to genuine epigrammatic point. To say, however, that the Signor is never lively or entertaining, would be too severe a censure: the fact is, that he has made his present narrative a channel for introducing to the reader all the anecdotes that he has ever heard on any subject, with all the observations on men and manners which his memory has retained, or his own mind ever suggested to itself; and he is peculiarly rich in the dicta of great wits, little wits, and *no* wits. When we add that he displays a profusion of sentimental affectation, the general tone of the volume will be fairly laid before our readers. In such a mixture, it is impossible that the matter should not amuse sometimes, although it may as often disgust by its irrelevancy. We cannot pretend to say to what degree of authenticity the remarks, statistical and historical, on the Barbary states, are intitled; nor are we very accurately apprized how the author's situation, during his short residence at Algiers, afforded the opportunities for collecting so large a mass of multifarious description.

The main design of the publication is stated to be an attempt to draw the attention of European powers to the policy of colonizing the north of Africa, after the expulsion of its present inhabitants;—a scheme which, under all present circumstances, was more likely to occur to an Italian than an English writer. The translator has also undertaken to illustrate the work with some remarks on the characters of our neighbours, the French, and also the Italians; 'judging the present,' as he observes in his preface, 'a favourable opportunity for offering a few desultory remarks on those nations.' The connection is about as obvious as that of the foreign traveller, who entered in his journal that the town of *Stony* Stratford seemed well to merit its name, since he never had been so incommoded with *fleas* as during the night which he passed there. It would be unfair to the editor, however, not to state that he has given notes of a different description, affording much relevant illustration of the text.

We will now advert to Mr. Salamé's volume, proposing to return to the Signor as occasion may require.

A work originally written in English, by a native of Alexandria, in Egypt, whatever be its general merits, is a literary curiosity; and it becomes more so, when we find that the necessary proficiency in our language for such an undertaking was acquired during a comparatively short period of time, and not derived from the studies of boy-hood. We presume it to be the first, as it may possibly be the last, book emanating from such a source in our tongue; and we shall therefore

Therefore preface our account of it with a brief outline of the author's life, collected from his own pages.

Mr. Salamé's family was long well known at St. Jean d'Acre, and in the neighbouring parts of Palestine. His grandfather fled from it to Mount Lebanon, leaving his property behind, in consequence of the cruelties exercised there by Achmed Pasha: one of his sons, an uncle of the present author, remained there, and embraced the Mohammedan religion: but another, the father of this writer, migrated to Alexandria in Egypt, where he subsequently obtained a place in the custom-house. Here Mr. Abraham Salamé was born, in 1788. From Alexandria the family removed to Rosetta, where the author received some little education, such as learning the Psalms and different portions of the Bible in Arabic. Here he frequently saw the French General, Abdallah Menou, and his Mohammedan wife; and Menou, observing him, we suppose, to be a clever lad, took some notice of him, wrote out the French alphabet for him, and tried to teach him the pronunciation of it.

On the evacuation of Egypt by the French, Mr. Salamé picked up a few words of the English and the French languages from the officers whose business conducted them to his father's house, and at last obtained a grammar of three languages, Italian, French, and English. In the former tongue, he had made a tolerable degree of progress at the age of fourteen: afterward, his opportunities were increased by obtaining a place in the house of a foreign consul; and the eagerness, with which he appears to have availed himself of all means of prosecuting his studies, is highly creditable to him. Soon after he had entered into the service of Mr. Petrucci, at Rosetta, Consul-General for Sweden, and British Vice-Consul, his life became very eventful, and afforded more occasions for seeing characters than for the acquisition of languages. Two escapes during a navigation in the Red Sea, the one from famine, and the other from a shipwreck,—and various perils by land, partly from those disasters incidental to caravans in the deserts, and partly from barbarous warfare, while he accompanied the army of the unfortunate successor of Elfi Bey, the last of his race, (the last, however, who is likely ever to be memorized in local history,)—render Mr. Salamé's story of himself very interesting. He was present also at the horrible massacre of the Mamelukes at Cairo by order of Ali Pasha, of which he gives a very clear and detailed description. Shortly after the extinction of the Beys, we find him sailing to Malta, employed by his principal in some mercantile speculation; and subsequently, through a

Mr. Sweetland, engaged, in what capacity he does not tell us, in the British service. Here he probably remained until he came to England in December, 1815; in the suite, if we rightly understand him, of Sir Robert Liston, our ambassador at the Porte.

Mr. Salamé's proficiency in our language must have been chiefly the acquirement of the years that have elapsed since this last epoch, because on his arrival here he appears to have been ignorant of some of the simplest elements of it. Nearly one half of his volume relates to his adventures before this voyage to England; intermingled with which are travels through Upper Egypt, an historical account of the Mamelukes, and a more particular detail of their last wars with Mohammed Ali; forming possibly the most interesting, though not the most prominent, part of the volume. We have also a translation of a decree of privileges said to have been granted by Mohammed to the Christians generally, and to those on Mount Sinai especially; where the original document is still preserved in the monastery of St. Catherine, according to Mr. Salamé, who professes to have seen it and taken a copy. He must excuse us, however, for being a little sceptical on this head, not as to the fact which he relates, but as to the antiquity and authenticity of the document in question. He states that one other copy only is preserved, which is at Constantinople. If a stranger, introduced merely by a recommendatory letter, as in the case of Mr. Salamé, was allowed to examine and transcribe so very curious a document, it seems somewhat remarkable that we should never hear of the oppressed monks on Athos urging the validity, and claiming the protection, of such a charter.

The whole volume, with the exception only of a very few pages, which are specified, professes to come from Mr. Salamé's pen; and it manifests, as we might suppose, some singularity of style, which, if any doubts existed respecting it, would go far to remove them. It is not generally deficient in perspicuity, though in one or two places we have had a little difficulty in catching the author's meaning; and he offends but rarely against the nicer grammatical rules. The chief characteristics are a certain degree of quaintness and simplicity; bearing a greater resemblance to the writings of some of our own early travellers, than to the composition which might be imagined to proceed from a foreigner now writing in our language. The character of the writer seems easily deducible from his book. We should conceive him to be a good natured lively man, credulous, strongly attached to those who have protected him, and not averse to making use of a little flattery

when he conceives that he can shew his gratitude by it: probably, too, possessed of quick parts, but without a strong mind. He has certainly no intention to over-rate his own personal courage; on the failures of which, when stunned by cannon and surrounded by carnage, he comments with a singular degree of *naiveté*: but he has some tendency to estimate his own means of observation too highly; and to describe, with the confidence of certainty, events of which his knowledge must necessarily have been very imperfect.

With regard to the expedition against Algiers, we have taken the pains to collect some information, on the truth of which we can place the firmest reliance, as proceeding from persons necessarily acquainted with all the circumstances of that action; and on many points, as we shall presently manifest, we have thus become enabled to correct Mr. Salamé's statements. This inaccuracy in the author is to be regretted, not only as it concerns the public generally, but more especially as it regards those who were intimately acquainted with the service in question; to whom it would doubtless have been a gratification to have possessed a faithful record of their own transactions from another pen. Such a fair report is not afforded them by the present publication, the incorrectness of which must annihilate any interest in it in their eyes; the author having in some instances omitted facts, and in others touched on material circumstances far too lightly for the purpose of proper elucidation. His ignorance of naval affairs has also led him into many errors, which might have been avoided if he had more diligently communicated with the officers around him. The movements and arrangement of ships for battle are in consequence not merely confused, but mis-stated; and the very evident wish, which pervades all his account, to cast the utmost share of the glory of the day on the commander-in-chief and the crew of the Queen Charlotte flag-ship, (in which Mr. S. had his berth,) leads him not only into unbecoming adulation towards the former, but into material error as to the ship and its crew.

It will not suit our present purpose to go through a detail of an action so recent in the memory of the public: but we will advert to such parts of the account before us as require the corrections to which we have alluded, and shall thus be enabled to justify the general observations with which we have introduced the subject.

In page 2. of this division of his volume, Mr. Salamé, speaking of the first negotiation with the Barbary states by Lord Exmouth, adds: 'But after this was settled, the Algerine government being of an implacable character, infringed the

treaty by a most atrocious massacre of a number of poor innocent fishermen, who had come from the opposite coasts of Europe to the coral-fishery at Bona. These persons being under the protection of Great Britain, she of course felt much hurt at this violation of the treaty, and a fleet was immediately prepared,' &c. Much exaggeration prevails in this statement, and some misconception of the real causes of the facts which it relates. The persons in these fishing boats were Sicilians, Sardinians, and Neapolitans; orders had been sent for their detention by the Dey; and, on the attempt to put those orders into execution, the fishermen made resistance, the result of which was the loss of some *few* lives: but this event, however deserving of reprobation, is unreasonably magnified in importance when termed 'an atrocious massacre.' The causes of this conduct in the Dey, which are traced by Mr. Salamé only to the implacable character of the Algerine government, may be more justly attributed to the impression which the Dey had conceived of approaching hostilities, and which led him to order the detention of all vessels that bore the British flag; and, as the use of our flag had been allowed to cover this coral fishery, although conducted by foreigners, the attack on the vessels in question is easily explained. Our readers are aware that the Dey had some ground for these apprehensions, because various misunderstandings existed between him and Lord Exmouth. This noble admiral, having failed in his recent attempt at the abolition of Christian slavery on his first visit, re-appeared with his squadron shortly afterward (in the spring of 1816), and was indeed twice-under sail to attack the place: but he was delayed by different circumstances, and finally abandoned the design under an amicable adjustment of points in dispute. We understand that the affair of Bona took place before the orders given in consequence of the apprehensions already stated were countermanded, on the settlement of differences; and a magnified account of these transactions at Bona was the main cause for Lord Exmouth being immediately sent out again, with an increased armament.

An instance of incorrectness, though not very material, occurs in p. 4., where Mr. Salamé states that the expedition was joined at Plymouth by the *Impregnable*, a three-decker, 'under Rear Admiral Sir David Milne,' and by the *Minden*, the *Superb*, and the *Albion*, together with frigates, brigs, &c.: but the fact is, as all the news-papers would have informed him, that the Rear Admiral sailed in the *Leander*, his proper flag-ship for the Halifax station, and did not move into the *Impregnable* until she was on the eve of quitting Gibraltar, prepared

prepared for the destined service: nor was Admiral Milne honoured with knighthood until *after* the battle.

At page 18. we have this description of an experiment made by order of Lord Exmouth :

‘ His Lordship wishing to make an experiment for proving the effect of a machine which had been lately invented for directing the aim to the desired point, ordered a bottle, secured with string, to be placed in a frame about four feet square, and to fix it with a long stick on the end of the fore yard, and to try with an eighteen pounder, brought in the middle of the quarter deck, to take aim by that machine, and to break the bottle without injuring the frame. After this astonishing experiment had perfectly succeeded, his Lordship considered that a bottle was too large; and being of glass, he ordered instead of it, a round piece of wood about five inches diameter, and ten inches long, to be put up. It was indeed a most surprising thing to see the effect of the shot on that bit of wood, how it was sometimes chipped from one side, and sometimes from the other; and many times was entirely carried away.

‘ When his Lordship and all the officers of the fleet were quite persuaded of the effect of this valuable invention, they were very glad at having ascertained what the effect of our shells would be on Algiers.’

How could any point relative to the throwing of shells be ascertained from the sights tried on the guns? This strange confusion may possibly have arisen from a partial ignorance of the proper mode of expression in our language.

In pages 30, &c. the annexed description is given of the fortifications :

‘ Algiers is situated upon steeps, between two hills, rising up almost to their tops; and is of a triangular shape, with a circumference, I think, of four miles: the buildings are all of white stone, and being surrounded with gardens and cultivated lands, afford a very pretty sight.

‘ Their fortifications, for such a small place, are indeed very strong. — On the north side, about a mile from the town, there is a small castle *, and several batteries, one after the other; and the last is joined to the north wall of the city.

‘ From this wall to the mole, there are several batteries more, because the mole is situated in the middle of the third part of the city, which is on the sea-side. On the north head of the mole, there is a semicircular battery of two tiers of 44 guns, called the Lion’s battery, the guns of which bear on the north, on the east, and on the south.

‘ * From this north side they do not fear any thing, because there is not water enough for anchorage, nor for landing.’

‘ After this is another round one, of three tiers, and of 48 guns, in the middle of which there is built a tower, or lighthouse ; and they call it the Light-house battery. — This is supported by another, a long one, still more strong, of three tiers, containing 66 guns, and called the Eastern battery. * This is flanked by four others, of two tiers, one joined to the other, which contain 60 guns, directed towards the south-east, and the south.

‘ On the south head of the mole, there are two large guns, sixty-eight pounders, and, I believe, of twenty feet long. † This is the description of the north side of the town, and of the whole of the mole.

‘ I shall now describe the fortifications of the south side of the town, which is next the south head of the mole : — Almost opposite to it, there are on the city side two small batteries of four guns each ; but these are followed by a strong battery of 20 guns, and a very ancient building, situated upon two large arches, through which they pass to the fish-market into the city, and they call it the Fish-market battery. ‡ From this to the south wall of the city, there are two batteries more ; and from that to a distance of about one mile and a half south, there are several other batteries, and a large castle. § These are their fortifications on the sea side ; but the rest of the works round the walls of the city, and the two castles situated upon the hills, were too far for me to observe them well, and therefore I cannot pretend to give any description of them : but they say, that the whole of their fortifications mounted 1500 guns.’

The sufferings of the crews of the Impregnable and Leander were the necessary results of the stations assigned to them. Signor Pananti's description of these defences is more loose than that of Mr. Salamé. He states that there are usually four or five thousand men to work the guns in case of sudden assault, but that their management of cannon is extremely bad : that an army would have many advantages over a maritime force, owing to the positions afforded by the surrounding hills, many of which command the works ; and he speaks also of one battery as bomb-proof, about which no particular mention is made by Mr. Salamé. The

‘ * The Impregnable unfortunately was obliged to lie opposite this battery, by which she was very much cut up.’

‘ † The Queen Charlotte was under these two heavy guns, one of which (a most astonishing thing) was thrown with its carriage into the sea, and the other was knocked off its carriage by a shot in its mouth.’

‘ ‡ The Leander was opposite this extraordinary battery, on which the shot had little effect, and the Leander was very badly cut up from it.’

‘ § The Dutch squadron was opposite these batteries and this castle, where they honourably did their duty.’

fact,

fact, we believe, is that the lower part of all the principal batteries is bomb-proof. The latter gentleman gives this account of the commencement of the action :

‘ The Queen Charlotte in a most gallant and astonishing manner took up a position opposite the head of the mole, and we let go the anchor at three quarters past two o’clock, within eighty yards from the mole head batteries : but afterwards, having found that we had not more than two feet water under the bottom of the Queen Charlotte, his Lordship let go the cable for twenty yards more ; and so we were within about one hundred yards of the mouths of their guns ; — when Lord Exmouth took a position in such a masterly style, that not more than four or five guns could bear on us from the mole ; though we were exposed to the fire of all their other batteries, and musketry, we gave them three cheers ; and the batteries, as well as the walls, being crowded with troops, they jumped on the top of the parapets to look at us, for our broadside was higher than their batteries ; and they were quite surprized to see a three-decker, with the rest of the fleet, so close to them. From what I observed of the Captain of the Port’s manner, and of their confusion inside of the mole, (though they were making great preparations,) I am quite sure, that even themselves were not aware of what they were about, nor what we meant to do ; because, according to their judgment, they thought that we should be terrified by their fortifications, and not advance so rapidly and closely to the attack. In proof of this, I must observe, that at this point their guns were not even loaded ; and they began to load them after the Queen Charlotte and almost all the fleet had passed their batteries. — At a few minutes before three, the Algerines, from the Eastern battery, fired the first shot at the Impregnable, which, with the Superb and the Albion *, was astern of the other ships, to prevent them from coming in ; then Lord Exmouth, having seen only the smoke of the gun before the sound reached him, said, with great alacrity, “ That will do ; fire, my fine fellows ! ” and I am sure, that before his Lordship had finished these words, our broadside was given, with great cheering, which was fired three times within five or six minutes ; and at the same instant the other ships did the same. — This first fire was so terrible, that they say more than five hundred persons were killed and wounded by it. And I believe this, because there was a great crowd of people in every part, many of whom, after the first discharge, I saw running away, under the walls, like dogs, walking upon their feet and hands.’

* The Superb and the Albion had almost reached their proper positions, but the Impregnable being rather slow, and the Algerines having opened a tremendous fire upon her, and the smoke being so thick that she could not distinguish her exact position, Admiral Milne was obliged to lie in that situation and begin the attack ; and thus, unfortunately, was exposed to the Eastern and the Light-house batteries, which were very strong.’

Some

Some intelligent officers, who have been willing to communicate details respecting this service, and have been fully aware of the scrupulous accuracy requisite in answering our inquiries on this head, have enabled us to correct the whole of the foregoing statement. Mr. Salamé's *variations* may be in some measure referred to the description which he gives of his own situation at this point of time. 'Exhausted,' he says, 'by the heat of that powerful sun, to which I was exposed the whole day; and my ears being deafened by the roar of guns, and finding myself in the dreadful danger of such a terrible engagement, in which I had never been before, I was quite at a loss, and like an astonished or stupid man, and did not know myself where I was.' The reader, therefore, will not be surprised that Mr. Salamé's remarks are incorrect, but that, after such a confession, he should have made any.

We may offer the following representation, on the authority to which we have alluded. The enemy did appear to be prepared; and the first shot that was fired passed astern of the Queen Charlotte; the second, nearly at the same instant, went near the Superb, and not the Impregnable, which was the rear-ship in the line. There is much reason to suppose that these two guns were fired without orders; and the enemy, as we find from Mr. Salamé himself, subsequently asserted it, though this is an uncertain corroboration, we confess. At any rate, those guns were very ill-directed. The author's note is as erroneous as his text. The Superb had brought up before the first shot was fired, in consequence of a signal from the Queen Charlotte for the ships to anchor immediately: but it is well known in the squadron, that this order was contrary to the arrangements which had been previously made, and occasioned the rear-ships to drop their anchors sooner than they otherwise would have done: the consequence of which was that they were not so well placed to avoid the force of the enemy's fire, as they would otherwise probably have been. Nevertheless, had the circumstances been different, the success of the day might have been doubtful. The Albion and Minden were in fact the last ships that took up their position, which they did close to the Impregnable*. The tremendous fire, described by Mr. S. as opening on the latter, did scarcely any damage until after she had anchored in conformity to the previous signal. The position of the Queen Charlotte was extremely good; and the conduct

* Contrary to the author's statement, we learn that the last-mentioned ship was one of the best sailers in the squadron.

throughout of her gallant officers and crew was excellent: but that the firing from her was not carried to the very great extent described by Mr. Salamé, p. 49., may partially appear from that ship having been obliged once or twice to change her position, during which movements her firing was in course suspended; and, as the batteries on the Mole, to which she was more immediately opposed, were the weakest, they were necessarily the sooner silenced. In page 50. occurs another error, by which a fine breeze is described as arising at the time when the signal was given to move out of the line of fire from the batteries. The fact is that it sprang up afterward, but fortunately not too late to relieve the exhausted sailors in the labour of towing and warping the ships to their anchorage.

Some of the succeeding events are stated with equal inaccuracy. The whole squadron is described as sailing from Algiers at the same time, with the exception of the *Prometheus*: but several frigates had previously put to sea, besides the *Leander*, which carried Admiral Milne with the dispatches. The subsequent passage, relative to the *Impregnable*, has been partially corrected in our previous remarks:

‘ During the conflict the *Impregnable* was in great peril, for when the action commenced, she was rather slow, and the Algerines having opened a tremendous fire upon her, she could not, on account of the smoke, make out the exact position appointed by Lord Exmouth, and was obliged to anchor opposite the strongest battery, by which she was very badly cut up, being hulled by 263 shots, of which about twenty passed between wind and water. Rear-Admiral Sir David Milne, having observed her dreadful situation, and the great number of killed and wounded on board, requested Lord Exmouth to send a ship to his assistance; but when the explosion took place under the batteries in front of the *Impregnable*, she was then somewhat relieved, and enabled to haul out with the fleet. Although much damaged, she did great honour to her dangerous situation by the destruction of the strongest battery in all the Algerines’ fortifications. She fired 6730 round shot; for Admiral Milne, seeing the dreadful fire which was opened upon her, gave orders to double load every gun.

‘ The consumption of powder and shot, in the *Queen Charlotte* and the *Impregnable* only, was twenty-six tons and a half of the former, and about one hundred and twenty tons of the latter.’

It appears from this statement of the position and damage of the ship, and from the return of the killed and wounded, that the *Impregnable* sustained by much the severest part of the action; having 73 killed and 137 wounded: an aggregate of

210* out of a crew of less than 800, some of them being absent in gun and rocket boats. The ship by no means moved slower than was necessary to preserve her station, and to bring up a vessel of that magnitude with a small quantity of cable: nor did the smoke prevent her from taking the station originally designed for her, but the signal to anchor, which she necessarily obeyed.

We should not forget, however, that Mr. Salamé, according to his own account, passed the greater part of the time of the action in the cock-pit, in a state of very considerable trepidation and alarm; his remarks must therefore have arisen mostly from subsequent and inadequate conversations and inquiries; and, doubtless, now, as in elder times,

———“*gaudent*

Garrula securi narrare pericula nautæ,”

from whom most of his information must have flowed. This is indeed more excusable, since it may be said to stand confessed, in a writer situated like Mr. Salamé, than the evident attempt to make his whole narration peculiarly palatable to Lord Exmouth and the crew of the Queen Charlotte, in a manner so fulsome as, we doubt not, to be equally disagreeable to his Lordship, his officers, and the general reader. Few foreigners, however, can sufficiently appreciate the character of a true English gentleman, and still more of a true British sailor, (like the noble Admiral himself,) to believe how little he relishes over-strained compliment.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XV. *The Bibliographical Decameron*; or, Ten Days' pleasant Discourse upon illuminated Manuscripts, and Subjects connected with early Engraving, Topography, and Bibliography. By the Rev. T. F. Dibdin. 3 Vols. Royal 8vo. 9l. 9s. Boards. Nicol, &c.

MR. DIBDIN is well known to the British public by his Introduction to editions of the Classics (M. R. Vol. xl.); by an edition of Ames's *Typographical Antiquities*, printed in 1810, on which he might have more learnedly and completely annotated; and by an amusing volume intitled *Bibliomania*, which appeared in 1811, and displayed some comic talent.† The volumes before us recall, or continue, with

* Such was the official return: but the number of wounded was in fact greater by 26 (slight cases).

† See M. Rev. Vol. lxvi. N.S.p. 270.

added illustrations, the conversations detailed in the *Bibliomania*. The writer seems adapted, by natural tendency, to be the *Mæcenas* of art rather than of literature: he is struck with the visible more than with the ideal peculiarities of a book; attends much to the condition, the margin, the title-page, the date, the frontispiece, the decorations, and the vignettes; and in a word attaches value to a copy because the edges of its leaves have not been cut!

Bibliography, as at present cultivated in England, is too much in danger of becoming a frivolous literature of title-pages; and those who are rich enough to purchase, but too lazy to read, the labours of learning, are beginning to content themselves with the vain possession of some unusual copy of a book. Like the drug-shop, where immoveable drawers are inscribed with all the jargon of the *pharmacopœia*, it is only for the epigraph on the binder's label that their stock of books has been collected and arranged. If they know in what year, and in what place, the rarest edition of a work has been published, they are content without any of the information which its perusal might supply; and, like the epicure without appetite, to possess the *carte* of the *restaurateur* is more desirable than to dine. This fashion has in some degree passed hither from the Continent. Of Peignot's *Repertoire Bibliographique Universel* we lately spoke in our lxxiiid vol. p. 526. It displays erudition in catalogues, but is surpassed in practical value by Brunet's *Manuel du Libraire*, also noticed by us in vol. lxxvii. p. 513. Both these writers, however, had some drift and purpose, some scope and aim: they have facilitated the survey and the arrangement of the extant mass of literature: but what can be the object and effect of the '*Bibliographical Decameron*,' unless to add one more to the number of those new-fashioned books which a foreign critic terms "ridiculously magnificent?" — It consists of ten several conversations. The scene is laid in a modern English library, but the interlocutors have Italian names, with home-bred manners. The dialogue has this dramatic propriety, that it observes and maintains the characteristic insipidity, which may be expected from the discourse of persons who take down books only to put them up again: but the exact citation of dates and titles, which is also attempted, passes the precision of common volubility.

The first conversation treats of the progress of art in the decoration of manuscripts. Engravings occur of portraits from Mr. Coke's Boccaccio, of a character in an Italian Terence, of the Trinity after a Saxon psalter, and of other Gothic caricatures of saints, angels, and patriarchs; then of
several

several animals not extant, and egregiously misdrawn. The engravings are in general exquisitely executed, and every pretext has been seized to make them troublesomely numerous; yet they are so unequal in size, so heterogeneous in manner, so motley, so insignificant in topic, and so incoherent in purpose, that they rather resemble a child's portfolio, which collects the pencilled drawing and the painted gew-gaw, the frontispieces of almanacks and the tail-pieces of magazines, the antient tenant of a broken frame and the modern prospectus of a picture-lottery, than a collection designed by intellect to render sensible the history of art.

The second and third days are devoted to beautifully printed books, and especially such as have been adorned with the productions of the early engravers; and fac-similes occur of the vignettes and decorations mentioned by the speakers.

In the fourth day, which completes the first volume, we find less of dialogue and flippancy, and more of record and dissertation. It gives an orderly popular view of the rise of printing on the Continent, especially in Italy; and it contains sound, useful, and recondite information, communicated without the perpetual distraction of supernumerary plates.

The fifth and sixth days continue the history of continental printing, and pass from Germany and Italy to France and the Low Countries. The illustrations are here appropriate, consisting chiefly of devices of the early printers.

The seventh day is allotted to decorative printing. Title-pages, simple and ornamented, are described, and capital initials are exhibited; or, as the author should perhaps have expressed himself, initial capitals. Wood-cut portraits of eminent characters also occur: modern English printers are contrasted with the antient; and the same modish turn of dialogue, which disfigured the first three days, returns in the seventh. We transcribe a specimen:

‘*Lisardo*. While we are upon the subject of introducing authors' portraits in the frontispieces or title-pages of books, let me carry you a little onwards in the sixteenth century; and taking you with the rapidity of an arrow, from France to England, suffer me to draw your attention to the following very interesting subject of honest old John Bale presenting his *Account of British Writers* to the youthful monarch, Edward VI. It is the *first edition* of the work; and there really does seem such a genuine air, or appearance of truth, about it, that I am compelled to rank it among the *legitimate* performances of its kind.

‘*Lorenzo*. I own there is something both curious and prepossessing in such a composition; and the back-ground, to my eye, seems also a faithful resemblance of the original.

‘*Lysander*. Beyond a doubt. It was the usual furniture of the better-

better-most rooms at the period to which it relates. I take the workmanship, however, of this wood-cut to be decidedly foreign.

'*Philemon*. There can be no question, I think, upon that point; which indeed equally applies to almost all the portraits both of Bale and of his monarchical patron. Have you nothing now, by way of contrast, or even by way of summing up in a striking manner, to exhibit respecting title-pages executed in Italy? Where are the boasts of the *Aldine*, *Giunti*, or *Gioliti* presses?

'*Lisardo*. Ask me, rather, where is the square foot of ground in Salisbury Plain, which the meridian Sun, after he has entered Cancer, (as the astronomers designate the summer-solstice,) doth not illumine with his rays? No such spot can be found. So of the decorative volumes of the great names you have just mentioned; names, which have been rendered doubly dear and illustrious to me since I have heard them so copiously descanted upon by *Lysander*. Of these printers, then, I say, where is the well-chosen library which, upon careful examination, doth not afford some few dozen exquisite specimens of the taste, especially in the title-pages, with which their publications are "got up?" None such, I trust, are known to the circle around me. But I will answer *Philemon*'s question more directly, and in such answer endeavour to "sum up with éclat," as he is pleased to bespeak such a peroration. *Lysander*, if you remember, shewed us a lovely little bit, containing the *Giolito-Eagle*, in the centre of an ornament forming the greater part of the title-page of one of the *Giolito* publications. But will *that* frontispiece — will *any* decorative title-page — presume "to lift its head" above the one which I shall immediately place before you? I see that "expectation stands on tiptoe!" Yet I am fearless respecting the issue. Look, gaze, and admire! — 'Tis from *Cardinal Bembo's History of Venice*, of the date of 1551, in folio, printed by the Aldine family.

'*Belinda*. We are absolutely amazed! Nothing prettier can be devised. It puts all modern title-pages to the blush.

'*Almansa*. I had no conception of so much elegance; and am eager for an immediate excursion to Venice.

'*Lisardo*. For what purpose? The spirit of Paul Manutius sleeps as soundly there as does his body. Venice is in every respect "fallen from her high estate;" yet the Coleti made a noble struggle some fourscore years ago, to revive the reputation of the Alduses: — but Padua in the Volpi, and Parma in her Bodoni, have recently outshone every other Italian city in typographical reputation. It is needless, I submit, to continue this disquisition upon title-pages to a later period; for in the seventeenth and following century, *copper-plate embellishments* were introduced — oftentimes rather whimsical than beautiful; and almost at all times in a very different and less interesting style of art. It now remains to devote the latter part of my decameronic efforts to a brief account of the progress of *Decorative Printing*; — for see, how beautifully the day has turned out! A genial air seems to be stirring abroad, as if it were summer; and, since we were wholly confined within doors yesterday, I own I begin to be im-

patient for the smell of verdure and the freshness of the southern breeze.

' *Lorenzo*. Where would you ramble ?

' *Lisardo*. To a thousand objects. Yet—to *one* more than another, and I will venture a trifling stake that the whole company support me—and that the "ayes have it."

' *Almansa*. Speak !

' *Lysander*. Remember, however, that there be no abrupt conclusion ; no flinching from the regular and complete exercise of your monarchical power.

' *Lisardo*. I disdain it. But, from yonder knoll in *Lorenzo's* grounds, there is, if I mistake not, a view of ——

' *Almansa*. I know : and guess to what he alludes.

' *Belinda*. 'Tis the *Abbey of St. Alban*, which is seen from thence—and he wishes us ——

' *Almansa*. To take a ride thither before dinner.

' *Lisardo*. Even so, ye shrewd and successful interpreters of half broken sentences ! That abbey, ye well know, was Caxton's rival in the press-way — *Master Insomuch* ! — But we are digressing ; and the monarch is, in this instance, a woeful example of irregularity for his subjects to imitate.

' *Lorenzo*. Let it be settled, then, that, on the conclusion of this latter division of *Lisardo's* discourse for the morning, the party set forward on a visit to this famous abbey—once the sister-cradle of the art of printing in England !

The eighth day's conversation turns on book-binding. An observation is omitted, to which the superior continental binders commonly attend, namely, that the gilt trophies stamped on the back of books should always be emblematic of and allusive to the contents of the volume. Thus, on a set of bucolic poems may be displayed crooks, bagpipes, and other pastoral instruments ; on a Roman history, the fasces and weapons of the people ; on sermons, chalices, crosses, or the dove and the Bible : but all the unmeaning stripes and flowers of our book-gilders should be avoided. The second volume closes with this dialogue.

On the ninth day we meet with anecdotes, of several book-auction-loving bibliomaniacs, (we copy the author's long epithet,) and of celebrated book-sales.

The tenth day gives a brief view of bibliographical literature, in which we miss with regret all notice of Reimmann's *Bibliotheca Historiæ Literariæ Critica*, printed at Hildesheim in 1739, and a model for critical catalogues. Bunemann's *Notitia Scriptorum editorum atque ineditorum Artem Typographicam illustrantium*, printed at Hanover in 1740, is another of those fundamental authorities, which might have enabled Mr. Dibdin to treat less superficially the early literary history of Germany ; particularly if he had called in the corrective

assistance of Wolf's *Monumenta Typographica*. He has read, we perceive, Orlandi's *Origine e Progressi della Stampa*. Portraits of the Italian founders of bibliographic science adorn this concluding chapter. Copious notes also accompany every dialogue; and a supplement concerning two beautiful Persian manuscripts terminates the work. We deem it thoroughly adapted for its appropriate public; — costly, therefore genteel; desultory, therefore not troublesome; and agreeable, because the possessor may dip into it at all times, yet leave it unread, if fatigued or called away. The typography has a splendor which is worthy of the innumerable and well-executed illustrations: but the latter seem to have been chosen rashly, and at random, and the capricious conversations to have been composed afterward, for the purpose of uniting them together. All the volumes may be opened any where with pleasure, and shut without pain; and they may be compared to the harangues of a print-auctioneer, who holds forth rare and unconnected engravings with panegyrical notices.

ART. XVI. *Account of the War in Spain and Portugal, and in the South of France; from 1808, to 1814, inclusive.* By John T. Jones, Lieutenant-Colonel, Corps of Royal Engineers. 8vo. pp. 448. 15s. Boards. Egerton. 1818.

So much has our attention been engaged during the present year by a variety of matter, that we have only been occasionally able to devote a portion of our pages to the performances of our military countrymen. Among the first of those that present themselves to our notice, is the publication now on our table; which is written by an officer of engineers, who, from his rank and relative situation, has had the most favourable opportunities of witnessing events which, in proportion as the epoch of their occurrence recedes from us by the unceasing march of time, become more and more interesting. With the merits of Colonel Jones as an author, the military public are already made acquainted, by his *Journal of the Sieges in the Peninsula*, which appeared in the year 1814, and in whose writings, we think we may assert, the true spirit of a soldier is displayed.

Before we proceed in our report, we must express our regret that, in a work of this description, the author did not take a very useful hint from the French; who, in their military productions, where plans, sketches, or maps are necessary, generally give them separately from the book, in the form of a portable atlas; each plan, &c. being loose, and thus easily consulted: as it is very irksome to the reader of a series of warlike

warlike manœuvres and details to be under the necessity of referring constantly to the end of the volume for the plates. We may be answered by the author's statement that these maps, so arranged, would be too expensive: but for such a reply we are prepared: *let them be lithographed*; by which method they will not only look better, but also cause so little extra expence that the sum paid by the purchaser of the work might be even less than it will be in having copper-plates bound up with the text.

We must premise also one word on the subject of military writings in general. Is it not truly painful to think that our officers do not, in these peaceful times, devote more of their attention to compositions of this nature? They are content with wresting the laurel crown from their Gallic competitors for glory, and leave them the bays; so that after-ages will remain doubtful on many points, concerning which thousands of living witnesses are competent to decide. Certainly, when the French have the exclusive use of the pen, we can refer only to their writings for the details of past scenes; and as they have, from national vanity, always thrown over the most unfavourable results a gloss which time cannot efface, posterity must believe their statements unless the historic talents of British officers are roused to action, and the varnish is removed from the deceitful pictures of the enemy. Of all the different classes of officers, none ought to be, or indeed are, more competent to this arduous undertaking than those of the corps of engineers; who are educated from their earliest youth in scientific acquirement, and possess, from their personal duties about the different leaders of armies, the best opportunities for observation of the events which those leaders create and bring into action. We are pleased to find that several of the gentlemen of the corps have published works since the late pacification, and we sincerely hope that they may continue so to illustrate the military annals of their country.

In the preface, Colonel Jones energetically laments the great want of which we have just complained; and he states that the object which led him to place himself before the world, in the trying character of an author, has been his conviction of the loss which the honour of his country must sustain, unless British officers step forwards to examine and confute the insidious statements of the French commentators on peninsular affairs. How far the Colonel himself has been adequate to such a task, and in what mode he has conducted his details, it is now our province to examine. Without following the author minutely through his ^{description} of the different

different actions, we shall endeavour to seize those ideas which appear best calculated to elucidate the darker passages of the ever memorable contest on the Iberian and Lusitanian shores.

Chap. I. carries us through a heavy detail of the events which preceded the war, and points out the singular train of chicaneries adopted by Napoleon, in order to secure for himself a permanent footing in Portugal; with the methods which he devised to turn the attention of the Spaniards from his main effort, namely, his design utterly to exterminate the house of Bourbon, and, by planting the Imperial Eagle on the turrets of the Retiro and of Lisbon, to create himself Autocrat of the West. How nearly this modern Bajazet succeeded in his vast design, the present generation are well aware, had he not been frustrated by the steady valour of our countrymen, directed by a warrior whose name posterity will undoubtedly place amid the most distinguished of those which our annals have recorded.

It is not till we reach the 25th page that we begin to feel pleasure in perusing this narration; the previous summary being dry and uninteresting, though necessary, and the style partaking of the nature of the subject: but, when the writer is set free from the trammels in which he was involved, and, having completed his introductory matter, launches into the detail of events known to himself, we find his language immediately change; and with a manly confidence, and the freedom of a soldier, he tells his tale so perspicuously, that we almost imagine that we see "*the very casques that did affright the air at Agincourt.*"

The chapter is then occupied by a relation of the events which took place in Spain and Portugal, from October, 1807, to the end of January, 1809; consequently including an account of the convention of Cintra, and the retreat to Corunna. The former is, of course, delicately treated, as it is merely a matter of notice, unconnected with the main design; and because, in fact, to use a common phrase, "*the less that is said about it the better.*" Of the retreat to Corunna we have a somewhat more enlarged account; and we are pleased to find the author acknowledging the great merit of the unfortunate commander who immortalized his name by that brilliant manœuvre, in which he not only defeated but outwitted Bonaparte and all his most experienced leaders. The description of the battle of Corunna is energetic, clear, and concise; and it gives the best general idea of it that we remember to have obtained.

Chap. II. embraces the series of events which occurred between February, 1809, and May, 1810, in which the then Sir Arthur Wellesley comes forwards; and here we may consider that the book opens.

We shall quote a paragraph in the beginning of this section, in which the character of the Portuguese is placed in its just light.

‘ The Portuguese are a people peculiarly adapted for military exertion; the lower classes being universally hardy, patient, and docile; whilst those of education, holding in remembrance the heroic deeds of their ancestors, cherish strong feelings of military pride. These qualities, however, have not of late years been fully displayed; as the government, conscious of its own limited resources, and having a firm reliance on the friendship and power of England, has always in the hour of danger trusted to her for support: at this crisis, actuated by such feelings, it submitted entirely to her guidance.’

The famous siege of Saragossa, which is well told, manifests clearly what the Spanish troops and populace were capable of effecting when properly led; and that the vulgar error of men being brave only when born in certain soils, or disciplined in certain rules, is one of those popular illusions which are calculated for the meridian of the dark ages.

‘ On the 10th of January,’ says the author, ‘ a violent bombardment began, and frequently three thousand shells were thrown into the devoted town in twenty-four hours. On the 26th, fifty-five pieces of heavy ordnance battered the newly raised works of the enceinte, and quickly formed a practicable breach: the French vigorously assaulted it the following morning, and, after a desperate resistance, gained the summit; where, however, they could not maintain themselves, as the citizens, from behind an interior retrenchment, kept up an incessant fire, and every moment sallied forth, and fought hand to hand, with the troops and workmen, endeavouring to form the lodgement. In these fierce encounters, women and priests were observed amongst the foremost and most courageous; and openly to contend with such enthusiasm was hopeless. The besiegers confined themselves to the slow, but certain operation of the sap; and, by its insidious advances, on the 6th of February, penetrated into the principal street named the Corso, where the buildings are of great solidity: then the conflict assumed the greatest degree of obstinacy; each house became a citadel, and required to be separately attacked; mining was the art employed, and the courage of the unpractised Arragonese failed before the skill of their more experienced antagonists. They nevertheless made the most surprising efforts; when forced from one room they renewed the combat in the next; and frequently, when driven inch by inch out of a building, Palafox, by a desperate and bold offensive movement, recovered it, and the enemy

enemy had the same resistance a second time to overcome. But courage alone is of little avail against courage and science united; daily and hourly the French made some advance; and when exertion was most required, a pestilential disorder, arising from the number of the unburied slain, broke out among the defenders, causing far more havoc than the sword. At last the heroic Palafox himself sickened, and affairs became desperate. Still the constancy of these dauntless Spaniards remained unshaken; and a priest of the name of Ric, by his personal example, and the enthusiasm he inspired, directed the defence of the few remaining streets with undiminished bravery; and at last, on the 20th February, after 30,000 citizens had buried themselves under the ruins of their houses, he, by firmness of conduct, forced Marshal Lannes to promise good treatment to the survivors.

This picture, so revolting to humanity, sets in its just point of view the pitch to which the courage of man can soar; and it shews what folly must have guided the minds of those Frenchmen, who supposed that the very mention of the name of their armies would annihilate every spark of national feeling, and of domestic affection, in the Spanish bosom.

We wish those readers, who are desirous of informing themselves truly of the actual character of the peninsular war, carefully to peruse Colonel Jones's observations on the behaviour of the Spanish troops during that period, commencing at the 81st page. He ably answers the undistinguishing calumny and clamour which were poured out against these people in Great Britain.

The action at Talavera, and its consequences, are well managed. The gallant conduct of Sir John Sherbrook and the Guards, who so nobly overcame the *invincibility* of the Gallic legion, and the discomfiture of the French, are all ably related; and to shew that this battle, which has been so often canvassed, was a decisive victory, we have only to quote the author's statement. 'The enemy having nearly 10,000 men killed or wounded, retired across the Alberche, leaving twenty pieces of cannon in possession of the victors. The next day, only two divisions were seen on the left of the river, and those, on the night of the 31st, also withdrew.' This passage, coming from an officer in Colonel Jones's situation, is a sufficient refutation of all the many attempts which have been made to invalidate the claim of the British to the laurel-crown of that day.

Still, whatever feelings of pride we may cherish when reflecting on the battle of Talavera, they receive a chilling gloom, and our horizon of fancy is suddenly overcast with the dark clouds of melancholy, when we consider the result of a contemporaneous exertion of the British government, which is mentioned.

mentioned in the ensuing page of this work. We allude to the second chapter, p. 104., and to the Walcheren expedition; in which a force was wasted that, had it penetrated into France, or been landed on the shores of Spain, would, in all probability, have saved much farther exertion.

The siege of Gerona is particularly well narrated; the name of Alvarez the Governor is well placed on a footing with that of Palafox; and both deserve the unqualified praise which the author gives to them.

Bonaparte's measures, designed to accomplish his threat of driving the English army of Portugal into the overwhelming ocean, occupy a part of the third section; and, by a judicious selection of his materials, the author opens the clearest views of this subject: leaving us, when we peruse his details of the forces which the French Emperor put into motion, in astonishment that the result was not such as Napoleon had so haughtily predicted.

Busaco, Fuentes de Honor, and other "well fought fields;" the excellent disposition of Lord Wellington for the defence of Lisbon; his admirable conception and execution of the lines of Torres Vedras, where mountains were scarped perpendicularly, rivers dammed, roads destroyed, and inundations formed; are the principal contents of the third chapter, the end of which brings the history to May, 1812. While studying this section, we are insensibly led to make a reflection which places Lord Wellington's character as a General in the highest point of view. With a force incredibly inferior to his tried opponent, by the judicious measure of suddenly fortifying the mountains from the mouth of the Zizandra to the Tagus, he not only checked Massena's advance, but, which is almost beyond belief, obliged that chieftain to evacuate Portugal, by merely occupying a defensive position. For the mode in which this novel act of generalship was effected, we refer to Colonel Jones's publication, pages 124, 125, 126. and 132. 'Inclosed,' says he in the last-mentioned page, 'between rivers and mountains, it is not easy to discover how the French army could have escaped entire destruction;' and into this predicament Massena was so artfully drawn, that he was actually ignorant of the lines being formed and the net spread, till his army had run their heads into the very snare.

What will the advocates for the military fame of France say to the statements contained in the 141st page of this work? where, after a specimen of the highest species of bravery in the Imperial troops, the author states, as an eye-witness, that 'their unnecessary cruelties and the wanton destruction

struction they committed, were such as to cast a shade over their character, which no military glory can efface, and to stamp them rather as sanguinary and unprincipled banditti, than as the organized warriors of a civilized state.'

We shall pass rapidly over the ensuing chapter, in which the actions of the Guadiana, Albuera, &c. are related, and proceed to the fifth; which details the military events in the south of Spain: but we must observe that we particularly admire those portions of this work, in which the positions and dispositions of the great fields of battle are explained; as for instance, the description of the action of Albuera, p. 162. *et seq.*

Chap. V. brings us to the year 1812; and in it we find, among other interesting narrations, details of the projected investment of Cadiz by the French; the Anglo-Iberian victory at Barrosa; the conduct of the Spaniards, particularly the Guerrillas; the attack of Tarifa; and a history of the affairs of the eastern Spanish provinces at that juncture. Of this chapter we have fully to signify our approbation; especially as it concerns the note in page 188., to which we refer the reader. Colonel Jones gives a romantic yet perfectly correct description of the Guerrillas; and we conceive that the actions of the Empecinado, El Marquisito, &c., would furnish ample and most interesting matter for the pen of such an author as the Scottish novelist: particularly as his national tales are now worn to their last thread, and the public are so well acquainted with Tartan trews, broad Scotch, and Covenanters.

We pass over the dreadful details of the massacre at Taragona: "its slightest word doth harrow up the ear."

The 6th, 7th, and 8th chapters are devoted to the events which occurred on the Peninsula from June, 1811, to the conclusion of the war there in 1813; and they contain accurate accounts of the battles, &c. of Arroyo de Molinas, Ciudad Rodrigo, Badajos, Salamanca, Vittoria, St. Sebastian, Pamploña, &c. They are all related with the same frank spirit and clearness which we have before praised, and just conclusions are drawn from each result.

At page 274. we are glad to find the following note, which explains away many cavilling notions that have been thrown out in this country concerning the excessive loss of men at the sieges in Spain and Portugal, and pays a well merited compliment to an officer of engineers, who has long enjoyed the good opinion of the British army:

'This siege (of Burgos) failed entirely from want of the necessary means of attack with the besieging force. The same deficiency at the previous sieges, partly arising from a too limited means of trans-
port

port, and partly from the non-existence of the requisite establishments in the British service, rendered them so costly in men. It is however but justice to the officers employed, to state that the attacks of the different fortresses in Spain, though irregular from the above cause, were pushed forward with a boldness, intrepidity, and dispatch beyond precedent, as admitted by friend and foe. The plan of the attack of Burgos had considerable professional merit as well as boldness, and, notwithstanding its failure, added much, in the opinion of the army, to the previously high reputation of Lieutenant-Colonel Burgoyne, the engineer in command.'

The concluding paragraph of the 8th chapter we shall also quote:

'Be it ever remembered that when betrayed into the power of Buonaparte, the pride of independence led the Spaniards to refuse submission to his fetters: the manly firmness of their character rendered vain the number of his forces; and their persevering fortitude gave opportunity for those combats which stripped his legions of their boasted invincibility, and stimulated continental Europe to those exertions which broke the tyranny of France, and probably saved the world from retrograding in civilization and refinement, under the oppressive influence of a powerful and widely spread military despotism.'

Chapter the 9th, and last, is divided from the rest of the work by a separate title-page; which intimates that its component parts relate only to the war in the south of France, following the brilliant passage of the Pyrenees by the Duke of Wellington. This section therefore comprizes that part of the history of the war, which occurs from November, 1813, to the general peace in April, 1814, and is executed with as much ability as its preceding chapters.

The worthy veterans, whose arms achieved the proud trophies of Spain, of Portugal, and of the south of France, may well value themselves on the recollection of their deeds, and, shewing their honourable scars, in the language of our immortal poet, may "o'er their flowing cups" make the names of Wellington and his heroic chieftains "familiar in their mouths as household words." In fact, we do not conceive that we should derogate from the merits of our famed forefathers, if we placed these actions on a level with the career of our countrymen over the plains of Cressy, of Poitiers, and of Azincourt; for will not after-ages be dazzled by the splendor which, like the fiery tail of a comet, will extend far into the dark night of time, and shed its lustre over such an unparalleled event as that which our times have witnessed:— a British army of vastly inferior force expelling from two kingdoms, from the pillars of Hercules to the Pyrenees, a host of invaders,

invaders, whom the united population of both countries could not even check ; and, following these invaders into their own land, eventually placing the standard of Britain on the towers of Nôtre Dame ! Well may such a thought as that which was expressed by Shakspeare enter the mind of an author, disposing himself to hand such an event to future generations ; and we have no doubt that the “ muse of fire ” will never be more likely to wing the flights of our countrymen to “ the brightest heaven of invention,” than when they are employed in embodying such invigorating details.

We have but a few more remarks to make on this publication. We are sorry to observe that the map of the country, amid whose scenes we have been wandering, is on so small a scale that, though in other respects accurate and good, it is of little service to the reader : for instance, in following the operations in Portugal, we cannot find in the minuteness of the map several places which we are seeking. For this reason, we strongly recommend that, in any future edition of the work, larger maps in the lithographic style may be introduced. The sketches of the movements in the Pyrenees, of the attack of the position on the Nivelle, and of the attack of Toulouse, do not come within the same objection : they are exceedingly well and accurately executed : but the little map of the country, from Bayonne to Toulouse, is liable to the like censure : though good in itself, it is awkwardly placed, and would have been better *solus*.

The Appendix contains some valuable matter. We advise our readers to peruse the extract from “ *Campagnes de l'Armée du Portugal, par Guingret* ; ” and to form their opinion from it whether Colonel Jones said too much, when he likened the French troops in Portugal to ‘ sanguinary and unprincipled banditti, rather than the organized warriors of a civilized state.’ No. C. of this Appendix throws much light on the comparative strength of the French army of invaders in Portugal ; and that portion which is marked E. contains some useful reflections on the causes that contributed to the successful issue of the war in Spain. The whole concludes with a series of notes, illustrating the text.

After having thus completed our report of this narrative, we have to state our opinion that it has successfully supplied a desideratum which has been universally felt in this country ; in furnishing us with an impartial confutation of the falsities of the French writers on the same subject, an excellent ground-work for the future historian, and an admirable study for those who aspire to military fame.

ART. XVII. *An Essay upon the Source of Positive Pleasure.* By J. W. Polidori, M. D. 8vo. pp. 63. 3s. sewed. Longman and Co. 1819.

ART. XVIII. *Ximenes, the Wreath, and other Poems.* By J. W. Polidori, M. D. 8vo. pp. 169. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

THE learned Smellfungus, who thought that "the amphitheatre was a great cockpit," was the prototype of that numerous family of grumblers who, in these latter times, have infested the earth. Since, indeed, it has strangely happened that a discontented and querulous temper has very generally stamped its possessors with the title of men of genius, we can not wonder that the world should abound with Smellfungus and Pococuranti. Were it equally fashionable and equally clever to be pleased, we have no doubt that thousands more of the learned would express their gratitude for existence, and all its blessings, than now deem it worthy of them to do so and we should have much rarer occasion to lament that perversion of intellect, and that insensibility to the varied bounties of our Creator, which disgrace any man of education. It is impossible not to speak strongly concerning that evil cause which has rendered useless to their fellow-creatures, and tormenting to themselves, a certain portion of noble minds; and which has afforded an opportunity to so many paltry imitators to claim the attributes of genius, under the disguise of an unhappy quality which has blighted the honours of some few of its children. We say, *some few*; and, thank Heaven, it can be said with truth. In general, we have seen a milk of human kindness, nay, an overflowing of divine love (if we may venture so to call it), in our men of high understanding, that amply rescues our nature from the base stigma of acknowledging the least where the most is given.

It will not be expected that, in the 19th century, any writer or reader of common sense will consider it as worth his while to follow Dr. Polidori into the maze of hackneyed metaphysics, with which he has endeavoured to obscure the convictions of reason, and to stifle even the murmurs of gratitude. — "The still small voice" of that good and generous sensation cannot be heard by him, who sits down calmly to prove that the benevolent Author of his being has given him *no* positive pleasures; and as little can the expostulations of reason be heeded by that mind which, previously to asserting that there are *no* positive pleasures, (an assertion that seems to be as deliberately as it is clearly made,) talks of '*An Essay upon their Source!*' That pleasure is *not* pleasure, but only the absence of

of pain, is a quibbling hypothesis, as old as the earliest sophisms with which we are acquainted.

"He never knew *Pleasure*, who never knew *Pain*," (according to the well known punning epigram,) is a saying which, seriously applied to the subject before us, will come much nearer to the truth than any of Dr. Polidori's ungracious speculations. Assuredly, the *most* acute sense of pleasure seems to be produced by contrast : but contrast is itself a source of positive delight ; and, besides this, we contend that it acts as a heightener to a consciousness of joy, positively and independently existing before that addition. Will it be necessary to do more than refer to the various *superfluities* with which the Deity has supplied every sense ? What is the "*omnis copia narium* ?" What is the "*medius leporum fons* ?" What are the *exquisitissimæ tactûs, auditûs, gustûs voluptates* ; the *siculæ dapes* ; the *avium citharæque cantus* ; — the infinite gratifications of sight ? What are they all, but so many eloquent and irrefragable proofs of an abundant Benevolence ; which, not contented with ministering to our wants, has ingeniously consulted our pleasures ? A man might have every thing requisite for bare existence ; he might be free from pain ; and yet enjoy none of these emanations of unutterable mercy and goodness. Where is the "luxury of doing good," which a Goldsmith could adorn with his poetical simplicity ; or the "exercise of the social affections," which a Paley could inculcate with his simple reasoning ? Hear Dr. Polidori : — 'Pain pursues us from our birth to our grave. We come into the world weeping, and pass from the bed of sickness to our tomb.'

Thus, after all that improvement of every kind has done for human nature, we are to be recalled to the old loathsome ebullitions of splenetic and darkling philosophy, and listen again to the "*tædè numdum intravi, anxius vixi, perturbatus exeo*," of the Heathen !

Let us now attend to Dr. Polidori as a poet.

'*Ximenes*' was written in the author's eighteenth year ; and he promised better as a poet at that early period, than he now does as a philosopher. The 'Essay on the Source of *positive* Pleasure' was indeed a *positive* proof of the utter unfitness of Dr. Polidori for the discussion of abstract questions. He has moreover appeared in the character of a *terrorist*, as we have also recorded in our late account of his "*Vampyre* ;" and to this, or to medicine, (which, perhaps, may happily combine both,) we would counsel him to adhere. Certainly, his powers as the Apollo, "*per quem concordant carmina nervis*," are not beyond mediocrity :

‘ To Mrs. —

‘ *Presenting her a Copy of my “ Essay on Pleasure.”* 1818.

‘ When first I came ‘midst mortals here,
 I heard men speak of pleasant dame,
 When oft they sought — but ne’er could hear
 More than a voice, which distant came,
 Inviting man and woman too
 To chase an image of their mind.
 As boy, who seems with looks to woo
 The bubbles wafted on the wind —
 And though his limbs are wearied out
 Still chases them with anxious throb,
 Till echoing comes th’ exultant shout —
 But lo! the winds his fancies rob,
 Or else the mocking bubble grasp’d,
 But leaves poor froth within the hand,
 He round it hurrying closely clasp’d —
 While he faint falls upon the strand —
 Or like the fire-fly flitting flame
 Lighting all the plants around,
 Lures the tir’d traveller, who, lame
 With the long weary miles (that wound
 Amidst the tangled forest’s gloom,
 Or changeless desert’s wide expanse
 Of wand’ring myriads oft the tomb
 Prostrate by winds or Arab’s lance)
 Still leaves the beaten track in chase
 Of this light fairy elfish thing,
 Thinking with it his child to grace
 If he it to his home can bring. —’

Thus intelligibly, thus grammatically, and thus musically, writes Dr. Polidori in his maturer years. If our readers be desirous of becoming acquainted with his productions at eighteen, we can assure them they will find those productions *something* better than the above.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR SEPTEMBER, 1819.

MATHEMATICS, ASTRONOMY, &c.

Art. 19. *Conversations on Algebra* ; being an Introduction to the First Principles of that Science. Designed for those who have not the Advantage of a Tutor, as well as for the Use of Students in Schools. By William Cole. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

It appears from the preface to this publication, which is written with great modesty, that the author is one of these self-taught geniuses

geniuses of which we have many instances in this country. He informs us that he obtained his first knowledge of algebra from a little work now almost out of date, but which enjoyed very high reputation in its day, viz. Daniel Fenning's *Algebra*; which was composed in the form of familiar dialogues between a tutor and his pupil, and this form the present author has given also to his treatise. Whether it was owing to this method of conveying instruction, or to the perspicuity of Fenning's mode of illustrating his subject, that his work became so popular, we are unable to say: but it is certain that, about 40 years ago, very few students in mathematics were unprovided with that book and Ward's *Mathematician's Guide*; two tracts which have perhaps done more towards forming self-taught tyros than any others. We have great doubt, however, whether the dialogue-form be so well suited for the purposes of instruction in the present day; because it necessarily gives a quaintness to the work which very ill accords with modern taste, at the same time that it renders prolixity almost unavoidable.

In the instance before us, the scene is laid near Colchester, and the principal characters are,

Theon, the author of the work; a well disposed, respectable, and patient instructor;

Honestus, a plain honest countryman, ignorant of science, but inclined to promote every kind of improvement;

Philo, son of *Honestus*, a docile youth who wishes to be instructed in the first principles of mathematics;

Curiosus, a lad who, having acquired at school a small degree of mathematical knowledge, is desirous of making farther advancement.

The curtain rises, and discovers *Theon* and *Honestus*; who, after a little introductory conversation, proceed to discourse on the subject of algebra. *Honestus* having inquired what algebra is, and what are its uses, the following dialogue ensues:

' *Theon*. Its uses are many and various. It furnishes the means of investigating truths, that to common apprehension seem unattainable; and of answering questions that, to those who are unacquainted with this science, would appear impossible. By the solution of one such question, a general rule may be obtained for answering all questions of the same kind; and many of the rules of arithmetic have been derived from this source.

' But these are not its only uses; for by the study and practice of this science, a person is habituated to a close way of thinking; it enables him to trace effects to their causes, and to apply a similar mode of reasoning in the investigation of truth in all cases, and under any circumstances whatsoever.

' Moreover, if your son wishes to acquire a general knowledge of mathematics, this is the first branch, next after arithmetic, that he ought to study.

' *Honestus*. If, Sir, algebra be of such excellent and extensive use, I think it will not be proper to discourage my son in his attempt to gain some knowledge of it.

' *Theon*.

‘ *Theon*. Certainly not: on the contrary, I would advise you to render him all the assistance in your power, and if he should not find it necessary to make much use of it, you may rest assured that it will do him no harm.

‘ *Honestus*. I shall follow your advice, Sir, and shall be glad to know what method he should adopt, in order to obtain some knowledge of so useful a science.

‘ *Theon*. There are many excellent books published on this subject; I would advise him to procure as many of them as he conveniently can; to study them attentively, and if he meet with difficulties that he cannot surmount, I shall be ready to give him all the instruction and assistance in my power, whenever he may think proper to wait upon me for that purpose.

‘ *Honestus*. I thank you, Sir, and I will inform him of the particulars of our conversation. — But here he comes. And he will understand from you what steps he ought to pursue, better than I can inform him at second hand.’

Philo now forms one of the party, and it is soon agreed between them that the youth is to receive lessons from *Theon*. Accordingly, in the second scene or dialogue, we find him and his master closely employed in studying and explaining the usual definitions, symbols, characters, &c.; and, in the successive dialogues, the pupil is taken through all the fundamental rules of algebra, which, excepting the form into which they are thrown by the conversation, are nearly the same as in Bonycastle’s small Algebra.

Curiosus does not appear on the stage till the eleventh dialogue commences, which is on the subject of proportion: but we then find him very inquisitive, and making many pertinent observations.

The course, which includes the diophantine and indeterminate analysis, infinite series, ratios, and variable quantities, logarithms, exponential equations, interest, and annuities, being completed, *Honestus* again presents himself to thank *Theon* for the instruction given to his son, and to make some inquiries concerning his future proceedings. The philosopher remarks:

‘ There is another article which some writers have introduced — and which they have endeavoured to explain at some length; — mean the doctrine of chances.

‘ As this is a subject of which I entirely disapprove, I cannot recommend it to you; nor do I think it worthy of your attention, although the prevailing fashion of the present day has attached to it a considerable degree of popularity.

‘ All the calculations respecting chances are fallacious; not because the calculations themselves are erroneous, but because they are founded upon uncertain data; and if a mathematical calculation be erected upon a false foundation, the conclusion can in no case be depended upon, but has a tendency to bring the science into disrepute.

‘ *Honestus*. As you seem, Sir, to disapprove of all calculations of this kind, pray what do you think of life-annuities? I confess that I do not clearly understand them, but they are the subject of daily conversation.

‘ *Theon*.

'*Theon*. I consider them, Sir, as a species of gambling, that, in many cases, is unjustifiable. Of all contingencies, the continuance of human life is the most uncertain; and a person who ventures a *certainty* upon such a *precarious* speculation, must, at least, be guilty of very great imprudence.

'There are many other objections that apply to life-annuities, as well as to the doctrine of chances in general, and therefore I cannot recommend the study of that subject.'

What may be the cause of the severe censure which *Theon* passes on the doctrine of chances, we are unable to imagine; it is true that he somewhat modifies it in a note, but still it has obviously incurred the old Grecian's displeasure. For our own part, we are altogether of a different opinion: we have always thought that this was one of the pleasantest branches of algebra; that the principles on which it is founded are just and unquestionable; and we are of the same opinion still, notwithstanding all that *Theon* has said to the contrary.

Art. 20. *A Companion to the Globes*; comprising the various Problems that may be performed by the Globes, preceded by the Subjects to which they refer, and accompanied by more than One Thousand Examples and Recapitulatory Exercises, &c. By a private Teacher. 12mo. 4s. 6d. bound. Law and Whittaker.

We are generally disposed to fix the value of this sort of publications by assuming it to be in the inverse ratio of their magnitude; and, according to this principle, we are inclined to think a little more favourably of this work than of some others which have lately fallen under our observation: but we should have valued it still higher if it had not been above one-fourth, or one-third, at most, of its present size. The author states in the title that it contains more than *one thousand examples*; that is, as many as it would be necessary to give in a complete system of Arithmetic; and at least ten times as many as are requisite for illustrating all the natural exercises on the globes. As to the quantity of these examples, they are in course of the same kind as those which are commonly given in treatises on the use of the globes: a slight difference in the phraseology and arrangement being all that can be expected to distinguish a work of this kind from the numerous brethren of the same family that have preceded it; and this difference we certainly find in the present performance.

The greatest novelty in this book consists of a series of astronomical questions at the beginning, and a list of derivations of certain astronomical terms at the conclusion: but, with respect to the former, although they are preceded by a concise description of the solar system, the answers must be sought in other works, which is rather troublesome; not to mention several that are nowhere to be obtained. Thus, for example; the student is asked, 'Which is the nearest fixed star, and what is its distance from us?' We should be glad to know the author's answer to this question. Again, 'In what time does the Georgium Sidus rotate on its axis?' Answer, nobody knows; at least we have never

understood that its diurnal rotation has been ascertained. — The following are somewhat of the same kind: ‘What is the most rational opinion concerning comets?’ — ‘Of what do the tails of comets consist?’ — ‘What is the most rational opinion respecting the fixed stars?’ Lastly, and not least, the student is required to prove that the earth has a rotatory motion on its axis, and that it has a revolution in its orbit. We should like to see the author’s demonstration of these two fundamental astronomical propositions.

We beg to remind the writer that he has not used the proper signs for Juno, Pallas, and Vesta; and we would advise him, and all other authors, to discontinue the use of the term *Asteroids* as applied to these bodies: they are in every respect planets, as much as any of the other bodies of our system that bear the name. We have always considered the invention of the former designation as an invidious and useless distinction, which ought not to be tolerated.

Art. 21. *The Elements of the Ellipse*, together with the Radii of Curvature, &c. relating to that Curve; and of Centripetal and Centrifugal Forces in Elliptical Orbits; to which is added the first of Dr. Matthew Stewart’s Tracts. By James Adams. 8vo—pp. 152. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Here is another instance of what may be effected in science by natural genius, and continued perseverance. (See Art. 19.) The author of this little volume is, if we are rightly informed, a native of Plymouth, and one more of those self-taught mathematicians of whom we have many examples in this country. That he has not limited his researches to the mere elementary branches of the subject, on which he writes, is obvious from the title-page to his work; as it is likewise from his communications with many of the most respectable periodical works that admit the introduction of mathematical investigations, to which he has been long a valuable contributor.

The great number of mathematicians in England, of the same rank with this author, has been noticed by one of the first of the French analysts; and it will not, we presume, be inconsistent with our purpose, if we here make a short comparison between the state of mathematical acquirements in this country and among our continental rivals, which will be perhaps more striking than many of our readers are aware. In France, nearly all the science of the kingdom is concentrated in the capital; the professors are men of great and acknowledged talents: but they are few in number, and their influence, as far at least as it regards their own country, is limited to a particular spot: the line is strong which separates the science of Paris from that of the departments; and consequently the operation of it is partial, and in many respects inefficient. M. Dupin, in his “*Mémoires sur la Marine*,” &c. (noticed in the Appendix to our lxxxvith vol.) makes some striking remarks on this local operation of French science. “The French,” he observes, “it must be acknowledged, have a strange idea of science, of letters, and of the arts: they deem it not less neces-

necessary to *centralize* their men of science and their works of art, than the great operations of their government. We had a French Academy; it was the Academy of Paris; — we have an Institute of France; it is the Institute of Paris; — we had a French Academy of Marine; it was the Academy of Brest.”

In England, on the contrary, we find a very general dispersion of knowledge, from the principal focus to the most remote quarters of the empire. Instead of a Royal Society of England being in fact the Society of London, it is nominally the Society of London, but its members are spread over every part of the kingdom: yet still it cannot be considered as the monopolizer of all the science of the country. Not to mention the chartered academies of Edinburgh and Dublin, or the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, we have numerous provincial associations in which science is nursed and cherished, and which include among their members men who would do honour to any learned body; such are the societies of Manchester, Newcastle, Plymouth, Norwich, &c. We believe that such institutions as these are very scarce in France: we know of only one, at Dijon; and, from what has been observed by Dupin and Lacroix, it is perhaps the only one besides those of Paris.

If, then, as we are ready to admit, the French take the lead of us in respect to the more profound researches of analysis, we have decidedly the advantage, as to number, in persons who may be termed mathematicians of the second order; and, as it fortunately happens that the most useful branches of mathematics are not among the most profound, we have thus the means of employing them more usefully than our neighbours. We have a greater number of men qualified for directing our great public and private works; men who will not disdain to blend practice with their theory, an union which is actually necessary to insure success; and it is, we conceive, to this circumstance that we owe that decided superiority in our machinery and constructions, which so forcibly struck M. Dupin in his late visits to this country, but which he wished to attribute to the sublime theories of the French Institute.

After these general observations, it remains for us to offer a few remarks relative to the performance that has given rise to them; the contents of which may be briefly stated thus.

The first part treats of the elementary properties of the ellipse: the second, of the radii of curvature, with various applications to the solution of many interesting geodetic propositions: the third, of the centripetal and centrifugal forces in elliptic orbits, as connected with physical astronomy; and, lastly, we have a republication of the first of Dr. Matthew Stewart's tracts relative to the same subject, which is become scarce. The properties of the ellipse, and indeed of all the conic sections, have (as the author observes) been frequently, and in many cases very ably, treated by other writers: but we may add that the method, struck out in the present essay, possesses still a sufficient degree of novelty and generality, to render it interesting to those who take a pleasure in tracing

tracing the many curious relations and dependencies of geometrical lines and curves. At the same time, however, we are inclined to think that the second and third parts are those which are most creditable to the talents of the author.

As we cannot undertake to examine the merits of the work step by step, because this would require the assistance of diagrams, and perhaps more room than could be devoted to such subjects, we can only state, generally, that we consider the entire performance as highly respectable, and that we wish Mr. Adams every possible success in the circulation of it.

P O E T R Y.

Art. 22. *The British Orpheus*; being a selection of Two Hundred and Seventy Songs and Airs, adapted for the Voice, Violin, German Flute, Flagelet, &c. arranged in the following Classes: Amatory, Moral, Rural, Elegiac, Bacchanalian, Humorous, Sea, Patriotic; with Jigs, Dances, Waltzes, &c. interspersed. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1819.

This volume is 'printed and published at Stourport by George Nicholson,' and the preface is signed by Mr. N. as editor. It is, on the whole, creditable to him as a selection, particularly in being free from indelicate compositions; and he laudably states his readiness to withdraw 'any piece which is within the protection of an individual.' Some typographical errors occur; and we could have welcomed a more frequent insertion of the name of the writer of the pieces, which might have often been supplied. The *Military Topper*, "How stands the glass around?" (p. 237.) has been ascribed in former collections to General Wolfe. — The music in score is given with the first stanza of all the compositions, few of which are of very modern date.

Art. 23. *Genius*; a Vision. By a Member of the University of Oxford. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Law and Whittaker.

We confess that this poem has in it rather too much hurly-burly "toil and trouble," to be very pleasing to our ears. It wants the grateful interchange of stillness and repose which is at all times agreeable, but which, after such a storm as we here encounter, is so essential to refresh the spirits, and to allow a little breathing-time to the exhausted powers of nature. The short metre of eight syllables moreover, even with the occasional varieties which are here given to it, is not very well adapted to our ideas of poetic harmony particularly when prolonged to the extent to which we have been now pursuing it. On the whole, we should have thought more highly of the 'genius' of this academic, if it had favoured us with less glare, noise, and dazzle, and had exhibited somewhat greater refinement of taste, with a more delicate perception of genuine poetic feeling.

Art. 24. *Adelaide of Lorraine*; a Poetic Narrative of the Miseries of a noble French Family, at the Commencement of the late Revolution. By R. C. Barton, Esq. Cr. 8vo. pp. 74. Lloyd and Son.

Those who object to the stiffness and affectation of Campbell may here at least find a poem that is intelligible. If we have not so fine a character as the Indian chief, or any thing so grand and well sustained as his death-song, yet we have the leader of a revolutionary band, a very desperate man; and we have this his exclamation while Aristus is in the grove;

' If in the grove, yon castle's lord should lie;
Ere this sharp dagger finds his hated breast
And gluts in blood of foes to liberty,
Before the tyrant falls — his child, his wife, must die;

and so, when Frederic is rejoining his lord, we are told;

' Nor could he hope, his unexpected flight,
Would long escape the leader's watchful eye —
And when, through opening shrubs, he met his sight,
The wretch exclaimed, " Die, trait'rous coward, die!"

In Campbell, we have not the happy exactness in dates which we enjoy in this tale. The pair were ten years without any family; then five years happy with Adelaide in the castle; then Aristus stays in England and Portugal, apart from Adelaide, during twelve years; then for three months with Captain Fitzhenry at sea; and then five years pass before they are re-established in Lorraine. Another advantage the author has had from commencing at the very beginning, and not rushing into the midst of his history, according to the indiscreet advice of Horace, viz. he has been able to describe a christening in the first canto, a trial in the second, and then to close the eventful tale with a marriage. The third canto is more original than any of the others: but, should any person object that it contains nothing peculiarly animated or interesting in the subject, he ought to be silenced by the declaration of the author, that ' his endeavours have been exerted to describe in flowing and harmonious language, stripped of the unnatural pomp and pageantry usually attendant on versification, scenes and actions of common life, without soaring in the boundless regions of obscure rhapsody, or blindly creeping in the more humble paths of senseless apathy.' (Preface, p. 8.) Or, should any ill-tempered critic object to such a line as this:

' And soon at Aristus' feet his bleeding guardian fell,' (p. 43.)

as somewhat careless, or think that such rhymes as *obscurity*, *simplicity*, and *misery*, page 61. lines 11. 13. 16.; *hospitality*, *society*, *sympathy*, page 63. lines 11. 14. 16.; or *harmony*, *villainy*, *secrecy*, *infamy*, page 67. lines 2. 4. 5. 7., are not exactly regular, he would only shew that he misconceived the author's purport.

' His object has been to divest, as much as possible, his numbers of those extravagant licences, in which English poetry generally abounds, and to reduce them to the more intelligible and pleasing standard of what may be termed a smooth harmonious prose, the effects more of the sound and transpositions of the words themselves, than the mysterious and imposing flights of a fertile imagination.'

It would be unkindness, indeed, to regret the susceptibility or the communicativeness of an individual, who describes his production as 'the ingenious attempt of one in whose nature the chord of poetry has been attuned so tremendously true, that it involuntarily vibrates at the slightest touch of poetic harmony, — the humble attempt of one who wishes to share with liberality the pleasurable feelings he enjoys in the richest strains of harmonious versification.'

EDUCATION.

Art. 25. *A Compendium of Greek Tenses, in a Tree, &c. for the Use of Tyros.* By J. Tilt. 4to. 5s. Boards, or on a Canvass Sheet. Low and Whittaker.

If the tyro, for whose use this skeleton of a quarto is designed, should chance to be much given to the practice of bird-catching, and can only be persuaded to hunt "verbs in a tree" with as much avidity as they seek the fowls of the air, they will no doubt find abundance of amusement in pursuit of the nest which is here offered for their sport. The analogy between the ramifications of the Greek tenses from the theme, and the branches of a tree from its parent trunk, is no new idea, but has probably suggested itself to the mind of every preceptor of the language, as an easy method of illustrating the formation of the tenses, and imprinting them on the memory of the pupil. The matter contained in the treatise before us is correct as far as it goes: but, though the object is important, its limits are very circumscribed; and, when it is considered that the whole of the notes are to be found in other grammatical treatises, more fully and more philologically explained, perhaps most persons would feel no great reluctance to leave the little family "in the tree" in undisturbed tranquillity.

Mr. Tilt has also published his tree with remarks, and some questions in the way of exercises, on a single sheet, canvass: mounted; for the purpose, it is presumed, of having it suspended for the pupil's examination in the room in which he studies. We would recommend the volume, however, in preference to the sheet, as more readily to be comprehended, and as supplying what may be justly deemed omissions in the latter.

Art. 26. *Introductory Greek Exercises to those of Dunbar, Neilson, &c. arranged under Models.* By Nathaniel Howard, Author of *Introductory Latin Exercises, &c.* 12mo. pp. 250. 5s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

This little elementary work on the Greek language combines two very essential excellences, which are not very frequently comprized in the same attempt: — facility to the instructor in his office, and the means of more rapid and well-grounded improvement to the pupil. It is in fact an Anglo-Greek Grammar, with a succession of exercises remarkably well adapted to exemplify and fix on the memory the rules which it exhibits.* In modern languages,

* We might notice some few inaccuracies in the use of words in the exercises, such as page 70. the verb $\phi\omicron\beta\epsilon\omega$ in the active-voice,

languages, we have many grammars on a similar system; among which the French grammar of Wanostrocht is, perhaps, one of the best.

It is much to be regretted that more attention is not paid to the writing of Greek in some of the most celebrated places of public education, where youths in the higher classes are frequently enjoined the composition of Greek verse, without ever having previously formed a single sentence in prose. The natural consequence is that they are frequently found deficient in that grammatical precision which is rarely the result of reading only, or the study of grammar alone, without the habit of translating or composing in the language. At Winchester College, we believe, Huntingford's Exercises in Greek are used, so that our remarks cannot apply to that institution: but, even there, such a work as the present might be highly eligible for still more elementary instruction. This little book, however, goes no farther than the formation of the tenses of the verbs, with exercises on them, and we would recommend a supplementary volume on the same system: for, though such works for higher classes do exist, it might be advantageous to the pupil to be carried forwards more closely on the same system on which he has commenced his career. In such an attempt, it would probably be advisable not to supply a full Greek vocabulary for the exercises, as likely to render the task a matter of too easy execution.

Art. 27. *The Eton Latin Prosody illustrated*, with English Explanations of the Rules, and Authorities from the Latin Poets. — In an Appendix are added, Rules for the Increments of Nouns and Verbs, and a Metrical Key to the Odes of Horace. By John Carey, LL. D. Classical French and English Teacher. 12mo. pp. 44. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Dr. Carey's little volume is, in fact, an illustration of Lilly's Prosody, in use at Eton, Harrow, and elsewhere. Each page is divided in the centre; the upper half containing that Latin prosodia, and the lower half a construction of it into English, with explanations and additional examples. Lilly is, beyond a doubt, too concise, omitting many things that are important to be known, with the view of rendering his rules sufficiently brief to be easily committed to memory. The present work does not supersede that necessary exercise, but affords additional instruction; occasionally adding reasons for usages which may have escaped some masters who are themselves not very critically versed in Latin poetry: but the more useful part consists, undoubtedly, of the rules for the increment of nouns and verbs, which has been hitherto more frequently acquired by habit than direct precept. The latter is the more secure method, because the former may act as the corroboration of it. We do not see, however, why a translation should not be

voice, in the sense of the Latin word *timeo*. We are not aware of such an usage in classical Greek. Ἐφοβούμεθα τὸν Θεόν, and not ἄφοβοίμεν, would convey the meaning of "we feared God." — Such instances are, as far as we have examined, rare, and unimportant.

added to this Appendix, as well as to the original Prosody. It is, indeed, somewhat difficult: as, for instance, let us take the first rule:

“ *Casibus obliquis vix crescit prima.—Secundæ
Sunt brevia incrementa: tamen producit Ibēri;*”

in which there seems to be some sacrifice of syntax for metrical arrangement.—We think that Dr. Carey would do well to alter the method of these latter rules altogether: since the pupil who is expected to commit them to memory has already acquired the habit of learning Latin rules in prose; and there can be, consequently, no necessity for assisting him with metre, which must render them more difficult to be understood. Dr. C. will probably have opportunities of making this change, if he finds it adviseable.

NOVELS.

Art. 28. *The Veteran; or Matrimonial Felicities.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

We have here little more than a tedious enumeration of personages, whose respective histories are detailed in a dull manner and interspersed with low gossiping anecdotes. The writer gives in his preface the following assurance: ‘If my friends have had the amusement in reading as I have had in witnessing the events, I shall be satisfied in having committed them to the press.’

Art. 29. *Castles in the Air; or the Whims of my Aunt.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

Like many others, this novel begins in one style and ends in another: the first part is the best: but the second and third volumes are made out with the talk of stage-coach passengers, the squabbles of governesses with their employers, and such common love-stories as can scarcely afford amusement to any readers.

Art. 30. *Hesitation; or, To Marry or Not to Marry.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

In this tale, the character of Lord Montague presents an incongruous mixture of religious sentiments and denunciations against duelling, with romantic *tirades* about enthusiasm in love; and ‘the frantic energies of the heart,’ produced by warm climates. The attempts at jocularities savour of pertness; and in vol. ii. p. 155., a very old common-place repartee is introduced as a new acquaintance. Some inaccuracies appear in the style; as vol. i. p. 74., ‘I came from *there*.’ Vol. ii. p. 13., ‘*In place of that glow.*’ This last expression is a Scoticism: but the writer’s favourite language seems to be the French, with which the novel is copiously interlarded. In vol. ii. p. 23. a lady is made to recommend that a member of Parliament should have more *simagrée*, and ‘be more *à la fanfaron*,’ and in pp. 93, 94. is a long French speech, the whole of which is palpably incorrect. At page 225. we have a touch of Italian; and a *caro sposa* is introduced. The obsolete French word *bejaune* is also dragged from its repose in the Dictionary, and appropriated by the writer as an epithet applicable to silliness and silly people.

Art.

Art. 31. *Dudley.* By Miss O'Keeffe, Author of *Patriarchal Times,* &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Longman and Co. 1819.

This novel is uniformly moral, and in some parts entertaining and even original. The history of Don Zulvago might have conveyed a striking warning, if it had been constructed with more attention to probability in the incidents, and if the Don and his companions were not made to reject, receive, and give away, so many princely fortunes, that readers accustomed to plod over *dot and go one* can keep no account of their disbursements. We must add that Lady Alford addresses her brother, on the death of his wife, in a strain of raillery which is somewhat unfeeling. A few Hibernicisms and grammatical errors must also be noticed, as (vol. i. p. 274.) '*I asked her would she sell me;*'—(p. 279.) '*A little girl threw me a smile and dropped me a curtsy!*'—(p. 325.) '*I enquired had he returned?*'—(p. 326.) '*At what hour did Colonel Powis leave?*' &c. &c.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 32. *Sermons on the Nature, Offices, and Character of Jesus Christ.* By the Reverend T. Bowdler, A.M. Vol. I. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The matter of these sermons, as the title indicates, is principally of a doctrinal cast; and the pious author, like many of his predecessors in the same theological track, discovers numerous prophecies and multifarious types of Christ in the writings of the Old Testament. Our opinions on this subject have been often expressed, and are well known; and, as Mr. Bowdler has not thrown any new light on it, or enforced his observations with any extraordinary cogency of argument, we shall not detain our readers by combating his positions or his opinions.

Art. 33. *Two Letters to the Bishop of Ossory, concerning Parliamentary Concession to the Roman Catholic Claims.* By Nathaniel Highmore, LL.D. 8vo. 2s. Ridgeway. 1818.

Dr. Highmore writes with point and animation: his remarks are perspicuous and forcible; and he discusses the subject before him with the learning of a scholar and the urbanity of a gentleman. The following passage, relative to the church of England, merits attentive consideration.

'My Lord, there is no church in Christendom, I believe there neither is, nor ever was, besides our own, a religion upon earth, in which the cure of souls and the duties of the priesthood, although in all churches and religions they be a means of support, and in some (with great propriety) of splendid and dignified support—yet in none, but our own, is the cure of souls made a saleable commodity, to be carried to the mart, put there up to auction, and knocked down with the hammer. What a man buys, he fairly endeavours to buy cheap. This may be effected by the smallness either of its price, or of the care and labour to be expended on it. Where a man invests his capital, he seeks to obtain as high an interest as he can. These cures of souls produce ten, fifteen, and twenty per cent. Preferences of country and certain vicinities give them, as is known well, their higher value in
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the market. A wealthy man cannot more advantageously provide for his younger children, after bringing them up in luxury and idleness, and in habits of expensive diversion. A reduced soldier has no better means of realizing the fruits of his campaigns. His returns are certain, free from risk, and what is still better, call for neither talents, nor exertion, "*nullus labor, nulla industria, nulla cura.*" He will not even have to come up to the Bank or the Annuity-office. The interest of his capital will be brought to his door. A seventh, a tenth, or less of his tithes will satisfy him, substitute, for discharging all the duties of his cure, and his only care will then be, that life grow not tedious for want of its amusements.

' While human nature shall remain, what our first forefathers transgression made it, such, my Lord, must be the far too frequent consequence of the stations in God's church being put as a detached and separate freehold property, for sale. An inducement with us to the practice has been mentioned by a learned writer: "*Nous voyons,*" (says Montesquieu) "*que dans les pays ou l'on n'est affecté que de l'esprit de commerce, on trafique de toutes les actions humaines, et de toutes les vertus morales.*" How far traffick is from being "subservient to the ends of religion and real benefit of God's church," your Lordship cannot fail to perceive. Since Parliament has humanely abolished the traffick of human beings, might it not, my Lord, deem worthy of its consideration this traffick in "the salvation of souls?" If its wisdom should not see fit to do away altogether the sale of these cures, might yet lessen the evil considerably by abolishing the ecclesiastical sinecures, which, by being such, cause nearly all the harm that traffick produces.'

Art. 34. *Remarks on the Design of the Gospel:* intended to illustrate the Christian Character, and to refute some of the practical Errors which have been attached to the Faith. pp. 82. Mary Stockdale. 1818.

No man can read these remarks without being convinced they are the product of a candid and benevolent mind. The author does not appear to be the interested advocate of any sect, but has taken a liberal and general view of the Christian doctrine as favourable to virtue and to happiness.

Art. 35. *Remarks upon the Service of the Church of England, respecting Baptism and the Office for Burial.* By a Minister of that Church. 8vo. pp. 66. Bowdery and Kirby.

This minister of the Establishment argues in favour of such a revision of our church as 'might tend to the benefit of religion and consequently to the improvement of morality.' The alterations which the worthy author would willingly accomplish, would probably extend so far as that which we have, on several occasions strenuously recommended: but still we should hail even the partial and imperfect dawn of an ecclesiastical reform as a desirable event. As, in the question of political correction, we should consider the abolition of only one rotten borough as so much gain towards a more general and effectual improvement, so in a re-

of the church we should regard a single reasonable alteration in any part of its liturgy, or in any one of its ordinances, as an auspicious commencement of a work which, if prosecuted with ability and executed with moderation, would be highly conducive to the stability of the church and the best interests of national piety.

We put the following questions in the words of this author, (p. 64.) and we humbly address them to our rulers both in the church and the state:—‘What time could be better suited for looking into the defects or errors in our method of worship, than the present?—What system, as the work of man, was ever so perfect that it would not admit of emendation?—And when we are endeavouring to carry the worship of the reformed church to heathens, why should the endeavour be delayed of making that worship as conformable as possible to the word of God?’

Art. 36. *An Answer to a Sermon* preached by the Rev. Charles Simeon, M. A. of King's College, Cambridge, at the Church of St. Catharine Cree, Leadenhall Street, Dec. 31. 1817; relative to a question between Jews and Christians. By Benjamin Abrahams, an Israelite. 8vo. 1s. Wilson. 1818.

Mr. Benjamin Abrahams has evinced a good portion of shrewdness in this answer to the sermon of Mr. Simeon. The following paragraph may serve as a specimen:

‘Your last parable, Reverend Sir, was that of a light-house. You observed what a cruel action it would be of a man that was placed in a light-house, and should see a ship in danger of running on a rock, for him to withhold the light from the ship's company. I hope not to offend you. Your parable reminded me of the light mentioned by the prophet Isaiah, v. 20. “Woe unto them that call evil good, and good evil; that put darkness for light, and light for darkness.” Let me recommend you to withhold your light from us; and bestow it where it is more required. Endeavour, first, to enlighten upwards of one hundred different sects of your own profession, and make it appear to them which sect is right; for, was there any Jew willing to embrace Christianity, the many different sects would confuse him so as not to incline him to put faith in either.’

Art. 37. *A ready Reply to an Irish Enquiry:* or a convincing and conclusive Confutation of Calvinism. To which is subjoined Ieropaideia: or the true Method of teaching the Clergy of the Established Church. Being a wholesome theological Cathartic to purge the Church of the Predestinarian Pestilence. By a Clergyman of the Church of England. 8vo. pp. 357. 1os. 6d. Boards. Whittemore.

Irony is a powerful weapon when it is well managed: but the right application of it requires no common dexterity, great nicety of discrimination, and great pungency of wit. These are at least requisites for the more refined and intellectual kind of irony: but this is not much suited for the multitude, who would not readily see through the veil which was thrown over the real meaning of the author, and would consequently be liable to interpret a jocular attack as a serious defence, or a serious defence as

an effusion of merriment. There is, however, an irony of a broader kind, which cannot so readily be mistaken, and which is not ill adapted for a vehicle of popular instruction. It is, indeed admirably calculated for the confutation of particular errors, and the exposure of particular absurdities: it serves to hold up a mirror to the mind, in which the error is forcibly seen in the excess of its obliquity, and the absurdity in the height of its extravagance.

The present work is intended to be a vindication of Calvinism, under the cover of an ironical attack on that now popular species of Christianity. The author does not abound in wit, though he often shines in sarcasm: but we do not think that the scanty particles of his wit, or the larger masses of his sarcasm, will serve to recommend the Calvinistic doctrine to those by whom it has not already been embraced. That doctrine can be defended only by detached portions of Scripture: but it is in direct opposition to the general sense of those writings, both of the Old and of the New Testament; and such a system could never be found in any part of the Bible, if those who examine that book were to peruse it without any previous knowledge of or predilection for the Calvinistic hypothesis. The majority of Christians, however, before they read the Scriptures, are taught to consider them as inculcating only one particular mode of belief, or set of opinions; and they are told that any tenet which is opposite to that criterion is only unscriptural delusion or impious heresy. This anonymous 'Clergyman' produces numerous passages from Bishop Tomline's "Refutation of Calvinism," and from Mant's Bampton Lectures, which he couples with a multiplicity of scriptural texts, and with the exhibition of those articles of the Established Church that are thought to be more peculiarly Calvinistic; in order to shew that the doctrines, which are combated both by the learned prelate and by the elegant lecturer, are in direct unison equally with the Scripture and with the articles.

In that part of the work which is called *Ieropaideia*, the author suggests some *valuable* directions for the education of candidates for the ministry of the Establishment; and, among the important accomplishments which he recommends to the clerical student, one is the art of dancing gracefully. Some vivacity is manifested in the following; and we do not find fault, in this instance, with the tendency of the irony:

'In preaching a *sentimental, flowery, complimentary*, sermon, you ought to be very attentive to your person and manner. Who can imagine a compliment coming with any grace from a Cymon, or sentiment uttered by the lips of a Satyr? Therefore, you ought always to have a handsome gown, cassock, and tippet, and take great pains in the vestry-room to tye on your band in the neatest style. It is worth while to take out a degree of Master of Arts, and still more of Doctor of Divinity, for the purpose of wearing the *hood*; a master's hood, or a doctor's, flows with very pretty negligence down the shoulders, as you walk up the aisle; you cannot think what a graceful appearance it gives; and all the ladies, when they ask "What is that he wears on his shoulders?" and are told it is a master's or a doctor's hood, think that you must have studied profoundly to obtain such a dignity, and that every thing you say must

must be gospel; they never know that it only costs one money. If you wear powder, let it be Marechalle; and if you recommend Macassar Oil, as by far the most sapient to improve the gloss of the hair: always preach with two rings; one on the little finger; let the left hand hang down with grace and negligence over the pulpit, use the right for your handkerchief, and lay it over the leaves of your sermon; let your rings be either diamond, or a dark clouded pebble, or blood-stone; the dark stone makes a pretty contrast with the white hand, and shews it to more advantage. Otto of Roses, or Esprit de Rose, at least, are tolerable perfumes for the handkerchief. A bottle of Luce, or a Vinegrette, are very interesting to use when you get into the pulpit; it appears as if you were overcome, and the ladies all anxious about you. Never raise your voice in speech of the complimentary kind, and throw as much softness and tenderness into your eyes as possible; a languishing look is very producing indeed. When you appear so like an Apollo, all eyes will be oracular; but do not look too much at any one lady, that is really quite cruel. I heard of a charming parson, such as I can describe, and the ladies used to call him "the Beauty of Holy Trinity," and his doctrines taught them all the holiness of beauty; and he was quite enchanting to see him preach.'

Much more *point* is generally observable in the author's instructions for the clerical profession, than in that part of the volume in which the particular aim is to vindicate the Calvinistic doctrine; but that doctrine is incapable of vindication, either in jest or earnest, by airy pleasantry or by serious argument. A gloom is indeed spread round the system of the Geneva Academy, which no hilarity can dissipate; and the present Censor of Calvinism has rendered it no service, by attempting to raise a laugh at the expence of its adversaries.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *Junius with his Vizor up!* or the real Author of the Letters published under that Signature now for the first time unveiled and revealed to the World. In two Letters to a Cousin in the Country. From Œdipus Oronoko, Tobacco-Snuff-Seller. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sherwood and Co. 1818.

To tell a bantering story well, the narrator should certainly mix it with a degree of gravity: but it should also be marked with certain colouring of *extravaganza*, or caricature, lest the humour become imperceptible in his progress. The many indecent conjectures that have lately been formed respecting the mysterious *Junius* are clearly open to ridicule; and the writer of the anonymous pamphlet before us has undoubtedly exposed them in the severest satire of this kind, since he pretends to overthrow and confound them all, by promulgating that this extraordinary person was the late MR. SUTT, of theatrical comic memory: a person, which, were this (*in his way*) gifted actor yet living, the most of his most pliable countenance would have been thrown into a diverting and diverted action. The writer, however, commits a fault to which we have alluded above: the whole of his

ductory effusions is too grave, and too much matter-of-fact, to be in harmony with the subsequent *explosion*; and he displays learning and talents not only too *heavy-armed* for the occasion, but inconsistent with the designation and occupation which he assumes for himself. Unless we are much deceived, also, we have before met with the idea of thus farcically charging poor Suett with the criminal honours of Junius.

We have termed the author's first letter a *matter-of-fact*; and we presume that he would not have us question the veracity of his two anecdotes of the late Mr. Horne Tooke, which he states to have derived from that gentleman himself. That which relates to Professor Porson is too long for us to quote, and too little creditable to his memory to allow of our desiring its diffusion. Well, too, as we knew the failing in his conduct which it displays, it is so much grosser than any fact of the kind with which we are acquainted, that we could wish to suspect it of exaggeration. The other specimen of Mr. Tooke's ready sarcasm we may transcribe, though this, also, is rather severe on the subject of it.

"Shortly," said Mr. T., "after I had published my *Two Pair of Portraits, of two Fathers and two Sons*, I met Sheridan, who said to me, with a saucy satirical air, "So, Sir, you are the Reverend Gentleman, I am told, who sometimes amuses himself in drawing portraits." "Yes, Sir! *I am that Gentleman*; and if you will do me the favour of sitting to me for yours, I will take it so faithfully, that even you yourself shall shudder at it!"

Art. 39. *Cursory Observations*, chiefly relating to the Conversation and Manners of Private Society. By Clericus. 8vo. pp. 42. Hatchard. 1818.

Much truth, and little novelty, are features by no means exclusively peculiar to these scanty sheets. They contain, however, some hints on the subject of familiar conversation, which, though sufficiently obvious, would doubtless, if adopted, have their utility in improving the pleasures of social life; as they might give that refinement and polish to our daily intercourse for which our foreign neighbours are so justly celebrated, and of which it is impossible, in our own country, not to perceive and lament the absence.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 40. *Unitarianism the Essence of vital Christianity*: preached at George's Meeting, Exeter, July 10. 1817, before the Members of the Western Unitarian Society, and of the Devon and Cornwall Association. By John Kenrick, M.A. 12mo. 1s. Hunter.

We do not range ourselves under the banners of any sect, but endeavour to be the impartial distributors of justice to all. Good men may be found among the members of every belief, though the doctrines of some are apparently more favourable to the production of goodness than those of others. The conduct of men, however, is less influenced by their speculative doctrines than by the circumstances in which they are placed, by constitutional temperament,

ment, by the impressions of early life, by the force of habit, and by the influence of surrounding example. Some sects hold tenets which, if embodied in practice, would be found very adverse to godliness: but still their belief is often far from producing this result; for, as men are sometimes worse, so they are frequently better, than their tenets; and hence many believe in such doctrines as innate depravity and vicarious punishment, without making the one an excuse for vice or the other an incitement to iniquity.

The tenets, which are maintained by Mr. Kenrick, are those which are held in great abhorrence by many *orthodox* Christians: but they will nevertheless, in numerous instances, be found to have been accompanied by the most disinterested virtue and the most exemplary piety. At any rate, Mr. K. is an able expositor of the doctrines of his sect; which, though small in numbers, appears to be estimable for its learning and its worth.

Art. 41. *Some Thoughts on Christian Stoicism, an Antidote against the Evils of Life.* Preached at Plymouth, November 15. 1818, in consequence of the much lamented Death of Sir Samuel Romilly. By Israel Worsley. 12mo. 1s. Baldwin and Co.

Christian stoicism is rather a quaint title for a sermon, and Christianity has not much analogy with stoicism. Stoicism teaches insensibility, where Christianity inculcates resignation: — but resignation may be practised where the most acute pangs of suffering are experienced. Stoicism supposes a callous indifference to corporeal pain, or to mental afflictions: but Christianity, without affecting to diminish the natural sensibility in such circumstances, endeavours to communicate solace, by infusing a pleasurable consciousness that the variegated calamities of life originate in benevolent intentions on the part of *the Supreme Disposer of events*, and consequently have the ultimate happiness of the individual in view. Christianity does not, like stoicism, teach that the wise man cannot feel pain: but it endeavours to communicate an internal sentiment by which pain may be moderated, and every species of misery relieved. — We unite cordially with Mr. Worsley in lamenting the death of Sir Samuel Romilly: but as we have, on other occasions, spoken of that event, we shall not allude to it any farther at present than by declaring that we consider it to have been what the death of few individuals can be regarded as being, — a *national calamity*.

Art. 42. *The preaching of the Gospel, the efficient Means of diffusing among Mankind a Knowledge of the true God.* Preached at opening the Church of St. Andrew's, in Calcutta, March, 1818. By James Bryce, D.D. Clergyman of the Church of Scotland at Fort William, and Chaplain to the Honourable Company's Bengal Establishment. 8vo. pp. 63. 2s. Underwood. 1818.

Dr. Bryce's sermon does not give us much room to hope, that any considerable good will be produced by the attempts which are making to convert the Hindoos to Christianity: but of the effect

of past attempts for this benevolent purpose, he expresses himself in a manner which does credit to his candour and veracity.

'Zcal,' says he, 'the most active and disinterested, and diligence the most assiduous, have not been spared by the Christian missionary in his pious attempts to convert the natives of India; but, alas! it may be doubted if at this day he boasts a single proselyte to his creed over whom he is warranted to rejoice. We have seen him exult over those whom a base apostacy has afterwards disgraced. We have beheld him snatch a few of the more ignorant and indigent from the tyranny of casts; but has he not himself acknowledged, with sorrow, that hitherto he has failed in imposing on his converts the salutary restraints of the Gospel? and may not I appeal to every one who hears me, if the christianized Hindu is not a term of reproach alike with the native and the European population of the country?'

Still the author seems disposed to believe, that the failure of preceding attempts to plant the love-breathing doctrine of Christianity among the Hindoos may be remedied in future by the employment of more discreet teachers, and the application of more judicious means. — We heartily hope that this supposition may be realized; for what friend to mankind would not rejoice to see the oppressive, and often barbarous, ordinances of the Brahminical superstition exchanged for the more simple rites and more civilizing precepts of the Gospel of Christ?

Art. 43. The Duties of Filial Piety, stated and recommended, in a Discourse addressed to young Persons, and delivered at St. Thomas's Chapel, Southwark, January 4. 1818. By Thomas Rees, F.S.A. 12mo. 1s. Longman and Co.

We should have been prepared to pronounce that nothing could have been better than this discourse, had we not, at the time of reading it, remembered, as indeed we can never forget, two sermons on the same interesting subject by Dr. Ogden. Yet still the discourse before us has so much intrinsic merit, and is so well calculated to be practically useful to both young and old of every class and description of persons, that we are by no means inclined to enter into invidious comparisons.

CORRESPONDENCE.

T. G.'s request is entirely out of our province, and we are always obliged to decline such extra-judicial duties. His papers shall be returned to him at our publisher's, if he pleases.

The note from our old friend '*near Truro*,' and its precursor, were received. We will attend to them, "when the time comes."

X. A. Z. must excuse us. "*Non nostrum est*," &c.

* * The APPENDIX to the last Volume of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains articles of FOREIGN LITERATURE, as usual: with the *General Title, Table of Contents, and Index*, for the Volume.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1819.

ART. I. *The Life of Mary, Queen of Scots*, drawn from the State-Papers. With Six subsidiary Memoirs; illustrated with Ten Plates of Medals, Portraits, and Prospects. By George Chalmers, F.R.S. S. A. 4to. 2 Vols. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1818.

THE character of Mary, Queen of Scots, has been the subject of a controversy for the last two hundred and fifty years, which has descended with all the hereditary animosity of hostile clanship; and the dead body of Patroclus was not an object of more fierce contention with the Greeks and Trojans. If time has in some measure softened the bitterness and acrimony of her assailants, it has rather animated than allayed the chivalrous and enthusiastic ardour of her defenders. Accustomed as we have been, indeed, to contemplate her less in the zenith of her power, glory, and regal splendor, than as a captive beauty bathed in tears, brooding in hopeless grief over her own wrongs, and seeing no end to her sufferings and imprisonment but the termination of her existence, she has excited the best feelings of our nature in her favour: every sympathy has been awakened which misfortune could inspire; and it has been heightened by indignation against the rival Queen, who betrayed and sacrificed her to personal or political jealousy. Even the venerable John Knox, till his biographer Mr. M'Crie had rescued him from the opprobrium, had lost half his credit and popularity as a reformer, on this side of the Tweed, by the fierce and rude behaviour of which it seems he has been falsely accused, towards a princess whom her champions have depicted as all grace and loveliness, innocence and accomplishment. "Take sentiments out of their pantouffles," however, says Horace Walpole, in one of his letters to Mr. Montague*, "and reduce them to the infirmities of mortality, what a falling off there is! I must tell you an anecdote that I found t'other day, in an old French author,

* See our last Review.

which is a great drawback on beaux sentiments and romantic ideas. Pasquier, in his *Recherches de la France*, is giving an account of the Queen of Scots' execution. He says, the night before, knowing her body must be stripped for her shroud, she would have her feet washed, because she used ointment to one of them which was sore. I believe I have told you that in a very old trial of her, which I bought from Lord Oxford's collection, it is said that she was a large lame woman." — Were all this proved, the spell would be for ever broken! Swords do not leap from their scabbards, nor quills from the gay strings that bind them, in defence of large lame women with sore feet!

Of the present publication, the history is this. — Struck with Whitaker's laborious and eloquent vindication of Mary, and accidentally hearing that he was employed in writing her private life, Mr. Chalmers, as ardent a champion as Whitaker himself, deemed it a duty which he owed to him and his subject, to communicate such documents concerning the Scottish Queen, as had occurred in his own inquiries with regard to the history of Scotland during her troubled age. Whitaker died, however, before he completed the undertaking; and his widow, knowing the interest which Mr. Chalmers had felt in his success, sent her husband's manuscript to him, and returned his own communication with it, desiring that the whole might be published: but Whitaker's papers were left in so imperfect a state that, in executing this work, Mr. Chalmers found it necessary to new-write the whole; and, for the sake of more convenient reference, he has arranged his material in two volumes: the first comprehending the Life of Mary and the second containing six Memoirs of subsidiary Matter. These Memoirs are, I. Of the Calumnies concerning the Scottish Queen. II. Of the Life of Francis II. her first Husband. III. Of the Life of Lord Darnley, her second Husband. IV. Of the Life of James Earl of Bothwell, her third Husband. V. Of the Life of the Regent Murray, her Bastard brother and Minion. VI. A Sketch of the Life of her Secretary Maitland. The great controversy, whether she was innocent or guilty of Darnley's death, is not made the subject of a distinct and formal dissertation; which, says Mr. Chalmers, might require an attention of more disgust than amusement, and might fatigue *without the comfort of conviction*: but he treats of it incidentally, and with less precision, in the various Memoirs.

We are not disposed to plunge either our readers or ourselves into the turbid and unfathomable waters of this controversy; a controversy, as Mr. Laing very truly remarks,

which has been perplexed by writers who were themselves deficient in reflection or research, and who accuse each other of the most complicated and refined forgeries. We had considered the question of Mary's participation in the murder of Darnley as having been entirely set at rest by this gentleman, in his *History of Scotland*; a work which, for keenness in the examination and cross-examination of witnesses, for ingenuity in eliciting evidence, and for perspicacity, condensation, and impartiality in summing it up, is stamped with the features and character of a forensic and judicial inquiry. Whitaker has, in modern times, been the great defender of Mary and impugner of Elizabeth, and is of course the *Magnus Apollo* of Mr. Chalmers. He was a writer of the most daring and fluent scurrility: with the flowers of eloquence he gathered weeds of the deadliest poison, and scattered them with indiscriminate profusion; and the manner in which he spoke of every person, who had ventured to hint at the criminality of the Queen of Scots, affords specimens of a greater variety of invective than the pages of almost any other author can supply. As to Hume and Robertson, the one he called a madman, and the other a liar; and John Knox, "the religious Sachem of religious Mohawks," he represented as exerting "all the wonderful influence which his rude but impassioned oratory had over the people, to wind them up into madness for the execution of their villanies." The great object of his indignation, however, was Buchanan, and many of his philippics against him are very amusing. Buchanan's Confessions, Sonnets, Letters, and Contracts, are "all spurious, the creation of a genius that seems to have delighted itself in the boldness of its own falsehoods, and to have rioted in the luxury of its own forgeries." — "His spirit could not long confine itself within the bounds of harmlessness. The serpent may appear for a time playing in wanton curls upon the ground. It will soon, however, rise upon its spires, and show its envenomed fang; *Archilochum proprio rabies armavit iambo.*" — "This leviathan of slander is not satisfied in taking gentle pastime in forgery, he must raise a tempest for his recreation." — "His malignity acted with all the force of a pestilential blast upon his discretion. The daring calumniator sunk into an impassioned idiot before it; and he stands on the pillar of infamy," &c. &c.

Such is the style of Whitaker. Mr. Chalmers has not half his liveliness of imagination, but he has imbibed all the coarseness of his spirit, and almost surpassed him in the vulgarity of his language; and the cask of abuse, from which Whitaker had drawn his supply for the heads of all those

unlucky wights who ventured to charge Mary with adultery and murder, is *tilted* by Mr. Chalmers, who sprinkles them thick and musty dregs over them from top to toe. Buchanan's *Detection* is said to 'contain a lie in every line;' and the writer afterward 'transcribed his *Detection* with its lie in every line into his baser *History*.' Robertson is merely set down as a fool: it was necessary to inculcate either his understanding or his honesty, and, in tenderness to his moral character, the former is preferred. 'Robertson was so absurd as to think that suspicions and charges were to establish the Queen's guilt,' and is gently reminded by Mr. Chalmers that 'suspicions and charges are not proofs.' He 'first deludes himself, and secondly deludes a confiding world by the most palpable forgeries.'—It was impossible that Mr. Chalmers should omit all notice of Mr. Laing, and thus he speaks of him: 'Two volumes of necessary supplement to Robertson's *History* seem to evince a strong suspicion in Mr. Laing, that the *Dissertation* of his predecessor had shrunk away before the vigorous *Vindication* of Whitaker. This more confident dissertator *does not notice that Vindication, except incidentally on a point or two of little consequence*. He walked out into the fields of fraud, and gleaned for the calumnation of a woman, and the arraignment of a queen, a dozen of forgeries,' &c. &c. He does not notice that *Vindication*, except on a point or two of little consequence! why he touches it with the spear of Ithuriel, disclosing its "vain hopes, vain aims, and its distempered thoughts;"

—— "for no falsehood can endure
Touch of celestial temper, but returns
Of force to its own likeness."

If Mr. Laing's *Dissertation* evinces a suspicion of the weakness of his predecessor's work, what, by parity of reasoning, are we to infer is the honest opinion of Mr. Chalmers concerning the *Vindication* of Whitaker, since he has judged it necessary to prop it up with his own heavy supporters? 'The writer,' he says, 'of whom I am now speaking (Laing) has republished a dozen forgeries which had been decisively exploded, as palpable counterfeits, for justifying a convicted faction, and eriminating an innocent Queen. If any other person than Mr. Laing had republished so many notorious forgeries to disgrace a woman and arraign a queen, I should have said of him, that he was himself very capable of forgery. Such a writer may show his prejudices, but he cannot establish any probation: he may calumniate, but without proofs, he cannot criminate.' Such are the terms in which Mr. Chal-

men has chosen to speak of Mr. Laing; besmearing him, as we have said, with the dregs of Whitaker's foul barrel of insult. Now it is a main object of Mr. Laing to prove that those *exploded forgeries* and *palpable counterfeits*, namely, the Letters from Mary to Bothwell, intercepted by Morton, and the Sonnets, &c., were the genuine compositions of the Queen; and so far from only touching on points of trivial importance, he enters into a most minute and detailed examination of the correspondence,—criticizes every document, every inference, every argument which Mary's partizans had alleged in favour of her innocence,—gives, in an Appendix, a large collection of the documents themselves, accompanied with notes in illustration of them,—and only after a most patient, scrutinizing, and impartial inquiry, comes to this conclusion, “that the participation of Mary in the murder of her husband must rest hereafter as an established truth, which no prejudice can evade, nor the perverse ingenuity of disputants confute.” Mr. Chalmers reminds us of Goldsmith's Village School-master :

“ In arguing too, the parson owned his skill,
For ev'n though vanquished he could argue still.”

As a sample of the candour and consistency which govern Mr. Whitaker and Mr. Chalmers, we shall make a brief extract from the latter, on the subject of Darnley's illness in his way from Stirling Castle to Glasgow, a short time before his murder :

‘ He set off, for Glasgow, to visit his father, at that place : but, before he could reach that town, says Robertson, mistakingly, he was taken dangerously ill, on the road. The fact, undoubtedly, is, that Darnley, heedlessly, went into Glasgow, wherein the small-pox was extremely prevalent ; and he was immediately taken, with that infectious disease. As soon as the Queen heard of her husband's being thus taken with the small-pox, she sent her own physician to attend upon him.* It is Buchanan, who says, that Darnley was poisoned ; and that the Queen would not allow any physician to attend upon him. The invariable practice of this writer, to hang some slander upon every action of the Queen, who had favoured, but never injured him, is the strongest proof of the murderous guilt of Murray, and his faction ; by writers, constantly, endeavouring to throw the guilt upon the innocent, from the deed doers.

* Bedford, who left Edinburgh on the 6th of January, in his letter to Cecil, of the 9th of January, 1566-7, stated both those facts, that Darnley had the small-pox ; 2dly, that the Queen had sent her own physician to him, Drury, the marshal of Berwick, also wrote to Cecil of the small-pox, spreading from Glasgow.’

‘ The Queen, having thus paid the attention of her conjugal duty to her wayward husband, went with her retinue, on a visit to Lord Drummond; with whom she remained, till she returned to Stirling, on the 29th of December: she remained here a day, and on the 31st of December, 1567, she went to Tullibardin, on a visit to Sir William Murray, the comptroller of her household. On the morrow, she returned to Stirling. And, here, she remained, till the 13th of January, 1566–7. Every moment now begins to be critical; and every minuteness, and specific caution, become necessary, for ascertaining the truth, and guarding against slander. Robertson, who was all unaware of the nature of Darnley’s disease, declaims against the Queen, as defective, in conjugal sympathies, when she made those visits of amusement, instead of attending on her husband; without knowing, that she had sent her own physician to Darnley; and without adverting, that she had an infant to care for. Thus it is, to write history, without knowledge of facts, and still more, without the spirit of sagacity, which enables the writer, to draw the line, wisely, between falsehood, and truth.’

Now Robertson says that the symptoms which attended the King’s distemper were violent and unusual, and “*in that age it was commonly imputed to poison:*” but so far was he from being ‘all unaware of the nature of Darnley’s disease,’ that he enumerates several authors who had asserted it to be the small pox, though, “amidst the contradiction of historians, he declines with certainty to decide concerning its nature or its cause,” (Rob. Hist. Scot. Book iv.); and in a long note he gives the various surmises as to the nature of the disease, by these various historians. Mr. Chalmers is angry with Robertson because he declaimed against the Queen’s deficiency in conjugal sympathies, ‘without knowing that she had sent her own physician to Darnley.’ Whitaker, is also angry with the doctor for having said concerning Mary’s visit to Glasgow at this period, that “notwithstanding the King’s danger, she amused herself with excursions to different parts of the country, and suffered near a month to elapse before she visited him. And he occupies three pages in her exculpation, by proving that she was ignorant of his illness at the time, and actually set off to see him the very first day she heard of it! Surely the doctor should *in honesty* have shewn that *she knew* of the illness, before he adduced this heavy charge against her. He should certainly *in policy* not have referred to a letter, as he does immediately afterwards, *which proves she did not know of it*. In the very next page he (Robertson) speaks of a letter written with her own hand to her ambassador in France just before she set out for Glasgow; and this proves decisively that she knew nothing

nothing of the illness till she actually set out. The letter is dated Jan. 20th, only the very day before she set out." (Whitaker, vol. ii. p. 54. 2d edit.) Thus, according to Mr. Chalmers, she must have sent her physician to Darnley at least ten days before, according to Whitaker, she knew of his illness! From such cross shots the assailants, as in the present instance, are very likely to wound one another, while the intended victim luckily escapes untouched. If the evidence of Mary's guilt, direct and circumstantial, be so strong as we think it is, the question may fairly be put, whence should the controversy concerning it have originated, and how has it so long subsisted? We cannot accede to the position of Mr. Chalmers that the 'profligacy of the age resulted from the violent efforts to reform it,' but rather agree with Mr. Laing "that the Reformation had diffused a more stern and inflexible morality through Europe." It was an age of assassination, and numerous are the instances on record that prove the indifference with which that crime was beheld. The Scots would have pardoned, perhaps, her participation in Darnley's murder: but it is impossible, says Mr. Laing, unless we peruse the state-papers and histories of the period, to conceive with what execration and horror her adulterous marriage with Bothwell, the murderer of her husband, was viewed by the reformers both at home and abroad. Had she been content to retain him as her lover and her minister, whom she might discard at pleasure, she might have reigned with impunity, and no doubt of her guilt would have now remained: but when, in consequence of her flagitious nuptials, she was driven from her throne, a large party, religious and political, became interested in her vindication, and would have excused her crimes had she continued to reign. "The Papists in England," he also adds, "had no hopes but from her succession to Elizabeth; her friends in Scotland were involved either in her crimes or her misfortunes; and in both kingdoms, a declining party whose existence depended on her preservation as their leader, grasped with eager credulity at the most outrageous fictions to conceal her guilt. The interest which her sufferings and long captivity had excited through Europe was confirmed on her death by the unexampled trial and execution of a sovereign prince. And the innocence of the martyred Queen became thenceforward an article both of religious and political belief."

That Mr. Chalmers has searched very laboriously for documents is most true, but it is equally true that he has not searched for them with the laudable purpose of forming an

impartial history, so much as with the view of exculpating Mary at all events, *per fas et nefas*, and of reviling Elizabeth, Cecil, Randolph, Morton, Murray, Knox, Buchanan, &c. &c., down to Hume, Robertson, and Laing! The work abounds with repetitions; the same evidence designed to substantiate the same facts is brought forwards in twenty different places: nothing like concentration is attempted; and although, to use Mr. Chalmers's own language, we might not have enjoyed the 'comfort of conviction' from any specific disquisition that he could have given us on the participation of Mary in Darnley's murder, we certainly should not have been half so much disgusted and fatigued as with seeing the same arguments adduced in different parts, over, and over, and over again. It is with great exultation that Mr. Chalmers asserts and labours to prove that Mary's marriage with Bothwell was forced on her; and he satisfies himself on this point by the act of Murray's parliament in 1567 declaring him guilty of treason on these three heads; first, that he had arrested the Queen's person; secondly, that he had carried her forcibly to his castle at Dunbar; and, thirdly, that he had coerced her to agree to marry him. Now as the genuineness of Mary's letters is denied by Mr. Chalmers, their evidence must not be quoted: but why is the authority of Sir James Melvil set at nought, who was one of her retinue, was carried with her to Dunbar, and who says that he saw no signs of reluctance or constraint; adding, moreover, that he was informed by one of Bothwell's own officers, that the whole transaction was managed with the Queen's knowledge and connivance? Why did not Mary accept the offer which she received from some of her nobility to rescue her from this imputed state of thralldom? She declined their interference, and voluntarily expressed her own contentment. That this expression of her contentment *was* voluntary there can be no doubt; for, knowing that a marriage concluded while she remained in the semblance even of captivity would naturally be attributed to force, and might be deemed invalid, she appeared personally in the Court of Session in order to obviate this difficulty; and, in the presence of the Chancellor, the other judges, and several of the nobility, she declared herself to be at full liberty: stating also that, though Bothwell's violence had at first excited her indignation, his respectful demeanor had since appeased her resentment, and that she had now determined to raise him to the highest honours. This was on the 12th of May; accordingly, she conferred on him, without delay, the title of Duke of Orkney; and, on the 15th of the same

same month, she solemnized with this murderer of her husband her foul polluted nuptials !

— “ Virtue, as it never will be moved,
Though lewdness court it in a shape of heaven,
So Lust, though to a radiant angel linked,
Will sate itself in a celestial bed
And prey on garbage.”

It is time for us to conclude. The leading incidents in Mary's life are so familiar to every person, that a rapid sketch would furnish neither novelty nor amusement; and certainly from such a sketch no satisfaction, ‘no comfort of conviction,’ could be derived on any controverted point.

We have incidentally glanced at a remark made by Mr. Chalmers, and frequently repeated, (as all his remarks are,) that the profligacy of the age in which Mary lived resulted from the violent efforts made to reform it. The fact is that, in his blind and head-long zeal to defend the Catholic Mary from the imputations of her Protestant accusers, and to represent her as of spotless and angelic purity, he takes every opportunity of reviling the Scotch reformation and the Scotch reformers.

‘The reign of Mary was a period of privy conspiracy, and open rebellion, of murders, and assassinations; whereof, she was the victim, but, surely, not the accessory: but, Elizabeth was the accessory, if not the principal, in most of those crimes, disgraceful, as they were, in themselves, and dangerous to the reigning Queen of the adjacent nation. The State papers, history, and the events, prove the facts, and illustrate the circumstances, beyond a doubt.

‘The same reign was, also, an age of religion, but, without morals. The religion, which became predominant; allowed the commission of evil, if good were proposed, as the end; though the evil was certain, and the good were problematical: Beaton was assassinated, for the benefit of the religion: Rizzio was murdered, in the Queen's presence, for the benefit of the religion. The general principle was reprobated, by the religion of Christ; but, was adopted into the practice of the fashionable code. Crime was rejected, by the Christian religion; but crime was assumed into the religion in vogue, if committed, with a religious intent. Such doctrines, and such practices, were rejected, by the religion, which Mary professed; such doctrines, and such practices, were allowed, were assumed, by the religion, which Murray professed, and protected. In reasoning, abstractedly, it is apparent, then, that Murray was more obnoxious to the charge of crime, than Mary. History, and documents, demonstrate the practical truth of those general reasonings, from reference to facts, and allusion to examples.’

This

This is downright infatuation; and the malignity of the statement is rendered perfectly inoperative by its absurdity. The oppugners of Mary are all traitors, villains, liars, &c., and the Regent Murray is 'the most consummate miscreant of a miscreant age,' while the Queen's defenders are, of course, "all honourable men."

Such a flagrant want of temper and decency is exhibited in every page of this work, that we know not how to speak of the style and composition of it without incurring some risk of similar indecorum. Mr. Chalmers's language abounds with vulgarisms, and he has not even the art of varying his vulgarity; Bothwell is called the *Cat's paw* of Murray an hundred times; and the repetition, through a thousand pages, of the terms forgers, murderers, liars, and conspirators, is really annoying. Though Whitaker was extremely scurrilous, his anger had in it something *poetical*: it kindled an ardent imagination, which exhibited its roman-candles, and pin-wheels, and flower-pots, in great variety: but, while Mr. Chalmers is as scurrilous as Whitaker, his fancy has no fire-works to display; all is dullness; and he does not send off a single rocket to illuminate the murky horizon of his extended pages.

After these general remarks, however, we should not do him justice if we did not select the most favourable specimen that we can give of his composition. The execution of Mary furnishes a subject which can never be contemplated without emotion: the poet, the painter, and the historian may here find exercise for all their talents; and we shall quote Mr. Chalmers's description of this last scene in the tragedy of her life:

' The morning of the 8th of February, 1586-7, being come, she dressed herself, as gorgeously, as she was wont to do, on festival days; and calling her servants together, she commanded her will to be read; and prayed them, to take their legacies, in good part, for her ability would not extend to greater matters. Then fixing her mind wholly upon God, in her oratory, with sighs, and prayers, she begged his divine grace, and favour, till the sheriff, Andrews, came to acquaint her, that she must now appear, in the last scene of her devious life. She came out, with state, countenance, and presence, says Camden, majestically composed, with a cheerful look, and a matron-like habit; with her head covered with a veil, which hung down to the ground; with her prayer-book, beads, hanging at her girdle; and carrying a crucifix of ivory in her hands. In the porch, she was received, by the earls, and other noblemen, where Melvill, her servant, falling upon his knees, and pouring forth his tears, bewailed his hard hap, that he was to carry into Scotland the woful tidings of the unhappy fate of

of his lady, and mistress. She thus comforted him: "Lament not, but rather rejoice; thou shalt, by and by, see Mary Steuart, freed from all her cares. Tell them, that I die constant, in my religion, and firm, in my fidelity, towards Scotland, and France. God forgive them, that have thirsted after my blood, as harts do after the fountain. Thou, oh God, who art truth itself, and perfectly, and truly understandeth the inward thoughts of my heart, knoweth how greatly I have desired, that the kingdoms of Scotland, and England might be united into one. Commend me to my son; and assure him, that I have done nothing, which may be prejudicial to the kingdom; admonish him to hold in amity with the Queen of England; and see thou do him faithful service."

And now the tears trickling down, she bad Melvill, several times, farewell, who wept, as fast as she. Then, turning to the earls, she prayed them, that her servants might be civilly dealt withal; that they might enjoy the legacies, which she had bequeathed them; that they might stand by her, at her death, and might be sent back into their own country, with letters of safe conduct. The former requests they granted; but, that they should stand by her at her death, the Earl of Kent showed himself somewhat unwilling, fearing some superstition. Fear it not, said she, these harmless souls desire only to take their last farewell of me. I know, my sister, Elizabeth, would not have denied me so small a matter, that my women should be then present, were it but for the honour of the female sex. I am her near kinswoman, descended, from Henry VII., Queen-dowager of France, and anointed Queen of Scots.

When she had said thus much, and turned herself aside, it was, at last, granted, that such of her servants, as she should name, should be present with her. She named Melvill, Burgoin, her physician, her apothecary, her surgeon, two women servants, and others; Melvill bore up her train: So, the gentlemen, the two earls, and the sheriff, going before her, she came to the scaffold, which was built at the upper end of the hall; on which was placed a chair, a cushion, and a block, all covered with black cloth. As soon as she was sat down; and silence commanded; Beal read the warrant: she heard it attentively, yet, as if her thoughts were taken up, with somewhat else. Then Fletcher, the Dean of Peterborough, began a long speech to her, concerning the condition of her life passed, present, and to come. She interrupted him once, or twice, as he was speaking; and prayed him not to trouble himself; protesting that she was firmly fixed, in the ancient Catholic religion, and for it, was ready to shed her blood. When he earnestly persuaded her, to true repentance, and to put her whole trust in Christ, by an assured faith; she answered, that in that religion, she was born, bred, and was ready to die. The earls said, they would pray for her, to whom she said, that she would give them hearty thanks, if they would pray with her; but, to join, continued she, in prayer, with you, who are of another profession, would be in me, a heinous sin. Then, they appointed the Dean to pray; with whom, while the multitude, that stood round,

round, were praying, she fell down on her knees, and holding the crucifix before her, in her hands, prayed in Latin, with her servants, out of the *Office of the blessed Virgin Mary*.

‘ After the Dean had ceased, she, in English words, recommended the church, her son, and Queen Elizabeth, to God; beseeching him to turn away his wrath, from this island; and professing that she reposed her hope of salvation in the blood of Christ; lifting up the crucifix, she called upon the celestial choir of saints, to make intercession to him, for her; she forgave all her enemies, and kissing the crucifix, and signing herself, with the cross, she said, “ As thy arms, oh Christ, were spread out upon the cross, so receive me, with the stretched out arms, of thy mercy, and forgive my sins.” Then the executioners asked her forgiveness, which she granted them. And, when her women servants had taken off her upper garments, lamenting the while, she kissed them, and signing them, with the cross, bade them, with a cheerful countenance, forbear their womanish lamentations; for, now, said she, shall I rest, from all my sorrows. In like manner, turning to her men servants, who, also, wept, she signed them, likewise, with the cross; and smiling, bade them farewell: and, now, having covered her face, with a linen handkerchief, and laying herself down on the block, she repeated, from the Psalm, In thee, oh Lord, do I trust, let me never be confounded. Then stretching out her body, and repeating many times, Into thy hands, oh Lord, I commend my spirit, her head was stricken off, at two strokes: the Dean crying out, So let Queen Elizabeth’s enemies perish; the Earl of Kent, answering, Amen: the multitude, meanwhile, sighing, and sorrowing. A circumstance occurred, which added, greatly, to the interest of this affecting scene: when they were about to remove the body of the unfortunate Queen, her little dog, which had followed her to the scaffold unobserved, amidst more striking objects, was found under her clothes, which could not be gotten forth, but by force, and afterwards would not depart, from her dead corpse, but went, and laid down, between her head, and shoulders, a thing diligently noted. While fidelity shall be considered, as a virtue, this remarkable instance of affectionate attachment will be regarded with satisfaction.’

Of the general characteristics of Mr. Chalmers’s style, we have already spoken; and of its minor faults, such as the absurd redundancy of his punctuation, which renders his meaning scarcely intelligible, the quotations afford sufficient examples.

ART. II. *A Visit to the Monastery of La Trappe, in 1817: with Notes taken during a Tour through Le Perche, Normandy, Bretagne, Poitou, Anjou, Le Bocage, Touraine, Orleanois, and the Environs of Paris.* By W. D. Fellowes, Esq. Illustrated with numerous coloured Engravings, from Drawings made on the Spot. 8vo. pp. 200. 1l. 1s. Boards. Stockdale. 1818.

WE reported to our readers, in the Review for September, 1816, a previous publication by Mr. Fellowes, intitled a "Month in Paris;" and in diffuseness and want of method, the book before us is almost as exceptionable as its Parisian predecessor: but it deserves a longer notice from the interest of several of the scenes visited by the writer, of which the first and most remarkable was the monastery of La Trappe. Mr. F. was stimulated to repair to this sequestered abode by its general celebrity, and by reflecting that no visit to it had been made, or at least recorded, by any of our travelling countrymen, since the conclusion of the late peace, and the consequent restoration of this singular establishment. Its original foundation goes back to the 12th century, and is attributed to a nobleman who had escaped shipwreck, and thought that no penance could be too great to express his gratitude for the rescue. The austerities of La Trappe were long remarkable throughout Europe: but, about two centuries ago, a great relaxation had taken place, and the members were accused of being immersed in sloth and luxury, when, in 1660, the arrival of a new superior, M. de Rancé, roused them from their torpor, and revived all the rigour of their original regulations. The building stands in a secluded spot, distant not 25 miles (as supposed by Mr. Fellowes) but 10 miles in a northerly direction from the small town of Mortagne, in the inland part of Normandy; and it is approached by a forest so dark and intricate as to be very little known to the inhabitants of the adjacent country. With some difficulty, Mr. F. procured a guide at Mortagne, and did not traverse the intervening solitude without hearing the howling of wolves: but at last he reached the brow of a hill, descended by a winding path through a sort of labyrinth towards the valley, and, in the vicinity of three small lakes, observed the venerable abbey.

' The situation of this monastery was well adapted to the founder's views, and to suggest the name it originally received of La Trappe, from the intricacy of the road which descends to it, and the difficulty of access or egress, which exists even to this day, though the woods have been very much thinned since the Revolution. *Perhaps there never was any thing in the whole universe*

universe better calculated to inspire religious awe than the first view of this monastery. *It was imposing even to breathlessness.* The total solitude — the undisturbed and chilling silence, which seem to have ever slept over the dark and ancient woods — the still lakes, reflecting the deep solemnity of the objects around them — all impress a powerful image of utter seclusion and hopeless separation from living man, and appear formed at once to court and gratify the sternest austerities of devotion — to nurse the fanaticism of diseased imaginations — to humour the wildest fancies — and promote the gloomiest schemes of penance and privation! —

‘ On entering the gate, a lay-brother received me on his knees; and in a low and whispering voice informed me they were at vespers. The stillness and gloom of the building — the last rays of the sun scarcely penetrating through its windows — the deep tones of the monks chanting the responses, which occasionally broke the silence, filled me with reverential emotions which I felt unwilling to disturb: it was necessary however to present my letter of introduction, and Frère Charle, the secrétaire, soon after came out, and received me with great civility. — He requested that in going over the convent, I would neither speak nor ask him any questions in those places where I saw him kneel, or in the presence of any of the monks. I followed him to the chapel, where, as soon as the service was over, the bell rung to summon them to supper. Ranged in double rows, with their heads enveloped in a large cowl, and bent down to the earth, they chanted the grace, and then seated themselves. During the repast one of them, standing, read passages from Scripture, reminding them of death, and of the shortness of human existence: another went round the whole community, and on his knees kissed their feet in succession, throwing himself prostrate on the floor at intervals before the image of our Saviour; a third remained on his knees the whole time, and in that attitude took his repast. These penitents had committed some fault, or neglected their religious duties, of which, according to the regulations, they had accused themselves, and were in consequence doomed to the above modes of penance.

‘ The refectory was furnished with long wooden tables and benches; each person was provided with a trencher, a jug of water, and a cup, having on it the name of the brother to whom it is appropriated, as Frère Paul, Frère François, &c. which name they assume on taking the vow. Their supper consisted of bread soaked in water, a little salt, and two raw carrots, placed by each; water alone is their beverage. The dinner is varied with a little cabbage or other vegetables: they very rarely have cheese, and never meat, fish, or eggs. The bread is of the coarsest kind possible.

‘ Their bed is a small truckle, boarded, with a single covering, generally a blanket, no mattress nor pillow; and, as in the former time, no fire is allowed but one in the great hall, which they never approach.

‘ Within

‘ Within these three years a small cabaret has been built near the convent for the accommodation of those who may occasionally visit it, the buildings that remain being but barely sufficient for their own members, which have been rapidly increasing since its restoration. In this cabaret I took up my abode for the night, in preference to the accommodation very kindly offered me by Frère Charle, and retired to rest, wearied with the day’s excursion, and fully satisfied, that all I had heard, all I had imagined of La Trappe, was infinitely short of the reality, and that no adequate description could be given of its awful and dreary solitude.’

In the Revolution, this monastery shared the fate of other establishments of the kind in France, and was suppressed in consequence of the law passed by the National Assembly: the members, at that time 225 in number, were consequently dispersed; and many of them, taking refuge in England, settled in Dorsetshire, where they remained during the long period of the exclusion of the Bourbons. Few monasteries have been re-established in France: but, an exception being made in favour of La Trappe, the surviving members returned from England; and, though as yet much inferior to their former number, they seem likely to increase, notwithstanding the violence which their regulations impose on human feelings. They consist first of *Frères Donnés*, or inmates; who, without joining the order permanently, retire for a season from the world; — next, of lay-brothers, who transact the temporal concerns of the Abbey, and act as servants; — and, lastly, of the monks, who are pledged for life to all the severities of the order. A board hung up in the refectory bears, under the title of *Table pour l’Office Divin*, a notice of the penances and labour of the week; the whole of which, Mr. F. was assured, was rigorously observed.

‘ The abstinence practised at La Trappe allows not the use of meat, fish, eggs, or butter; and a very limited quantity of bread and vegetables. They only eat twice a day; which meals consist of a slender repast at about eleven in the morning, and two ounces of bread and two raw carrots in the evening: both together do not at any time exceed twelve ounces. The same spirit of mortification is observable in their cells, which are very small, and have no other furniture than a bed of boards, a human skull, and a few religious books.

‘ Silence is at all times rigidly maintained; conversation is never permitted: should two of them even be seen standing near each other, though pursuing their daily labour, and preserving the strictest silence, it is considered as a violation of their vow, and highly criminal; each member is therefore as completely insulated as if he alone existed in the monastery. None but the Père Abbé knows the name, age, rank, or even the native country

of any member of the community : every one, at his first entrance, assumes another name, as I before observed, and with his former appellation, each is supposed to abjure, not only the world, but every recollection and memorial of himself and connexions : no word ever escapes from his lips by which the others can possibly guess who he is, or where he comes from.' — ' On the great festivals they rise at midnight ; otherwise they are not called until three quarters past one : at two they assemble in the chapel, where they perform different services, public and private, until seven in the morning, according to the regulations of the week, as exemplified in the "*Table pour l'Office Divin.*" At this hour they go out to labour in the open air. Their work is of the most fatiguing kind, is never intermitted, winter or summer, and admits of no relaxation from the state of the weather.

' When their labour is over, they go into chapel for a short time, until eleven o'clock, the hour of repast ; at a quarter after eleven they read till noon ; and afterwards lie down to rest for an hour : they are then summoned into the garden, where they again work until three ; then read again for three quarters of an hour, and retire for another quarter to their private meditations, by way of preparation for vespers, which begin at four, and end at six ; at seven they again enter the chapel, and at eight they leave it, and retire to rest.'

The rest of the volume is chiefly appropriated to two objects of a very different nature ; — an account of the romantic residence of Abelard and Heloise, and of the military operations of the Vendéens in the time of the Revolution. At a small place called Le Palet, three miles from Clisson in the department of the Lower Loire, is the house in which Abelard was born and Heloise resided with him until their final separation ; while near the town of Clisson is the castle of that name, so well known to those who have read the affecting memoirs of Madame de la Roche-Jaquelein. (See Monthly Review, vol. lxxxi. p. 225.) This castle, which still presents, even in its decay, lofty turrets and a large mass of building, was erected on a rock at the junction of two rivers ; a situation evidently chosen for military defence, and justifying the proud name of " barrier of Brittany," which it formerly bore. From Clisson, Mr. F. proceeded to explore a part of La Vendée, particularly the woody tract called *Le Bocage*, which had been the scene of the most obstinate and sanguinary operations.

' There are only two roads in the whole country : one of them runs from Nantes to la Rochelle, and the other from Bourdeaux to Tours, through Poitou : all the rest of this district is a complete labyrinth : there are indeed numerous pathways, so very winding and narrow, that they are much more calculated to harass and mislead, than to assist a traveller in his journey : these path-
ways

ways are flanked by wide and deep ditches, and almost rendered completely dark by lofty hedges on each side of them, the trees of which meet at top, and thus form an arch: hence they are rough and uneven in summer, besides being intolerably hot, and deep and miry in winter. To add to these inconveniences, the bed of a rivulet flowing along them frequently constitutes the only passage. —

‘The whole country bears the appearance of an extensive and thick forest: this arises from the nature of the enclosures; they are extremely small, often not more than fifty or sixty perches, surrounded with strong hedges planted in the banks. These circumstances alone would give the appearance just noticed; but the effect is much increased from other causes. On each side of the banks, on which the trees are planted, there are ditches and drains, and the moisture which they constantly supply to their roots, renders their growth very rapid and luxuriant. — Sometimes the trees are so disposed as to answer the purpose of a palisade; and this purpose they answer most effectually, not only from the great size and strength of the trees themselves, but also from the intervening spaces between them being filled up with strong and impassable underwood.’

Adjacent to *Le Bocage*, and in the vicinity of the sea, is a tract of country called *Le Marais*; which, though quite different in point of locality, was almost equally favourable to the desultory operations of the Vendéens. It is open, flat, and intersected by canals, or wide ditches, and by rivulets and salt marshes, with scarcely any carriage-roads. The natives, accustomed to traverse these watery barriers, sprang over them with a pole, or concealed themselves in a *nirole* or small boat; while the republicans were obliged to march united, and to lose much time in following a circuitous tract. From La Vendée Mr. F. proceeded along the Loire by Nantes, Angers, Saumur, Tours, Blois, and Orleans; being a part of the route traversed or pretended to be traversed twelve years ago by Mr. Pinkney, whose fallacious report of France excited so much attention at a time when the public was almost entirely deprived of accounts from that country. Mr. F. bears ample testimony to the beauty of the scenery along the Loire. The banks of that river are lined with corn-fields, vineyards, or orchards; while the prospects are diversified by the spire of a convent or the turrets of a *chateau* rising in rich and romantic wood-lands. The left bank of the river from Nantes to Angers, a distance of fully 70 miles, is a continued range of hills; the opposite bank is more level, but has a number of pleasant eminences: the population is more or less dense according to situation: but the prospect every where includes villas, castles, convents, or villages.

Mr. F. continued his journey to Paris, and describes a few of the most remarkable objects in the environs, among others the *Cimetière du Père La Chaise*; a burying ground which, whether we consider extent or picturesque situation, is the *Luna inter ignes minores* in comparison with other grounds of that description. In 1793, an act of the legislature put a stop to the practice of burying in churches or in church-yards within the inhabited part of Paris, and led to the selection of three extensive inclosures in the vicinity of the metropolis: among these the one just mentioned occupies the slope of a hill, and commands a view not only of the city but of the plains and rivers to a considerable distance. Here, among other tombs, are those of the unfortunate Labédoyère, of Ney, of Madame Cottin the well-known author of affecting romances, and of Fourcroy the chemist, together with Racine, Boileau, and other literati of a prior date.

‘ At the entrance, through large folding gates, is a spacious court-yard, having at one angle the dwelling of the concierge, or keeper. The enclosure contains one hundred and twenty acres, on a gently rising ground, in the centre of which stands the ancient mansion constructed by Louis XIV. for his confessor, Père la Chaise, the celebrated Jesuit, who, with Madame de Maintenon, governed France. Rising above the thousands of tombs which surround it, it displays itself a wrecked and mouldering monument of ancient splendour, and the mutability of human affairs! This spot became afterwards a place of public promenade and great resort, from the beauty of its position overlooking all Paris; and though so often the scene of festivity and pleasure, now presents to the eye of the beholder a mournfully interesting sight of tombs and sarcophagi, intermixed with various fruit-trees, cypress groves, the choicest flowers, and rarest shrubs.’ —

‘ The various tombs are placed without order or regularity: they are mostly enclosed with trellis-work of wood, sometimes by iron railing; and consist of a small marble column, a pyramid, a sarcophagus, or a single slab, just as may have suited the fancy or the taste of the friends of the departed. — Some surrounded with cypress, some with roses, myrtles, and the choicest exotics; others with evergreens, and not unfrequently a single weeping willow, with the addition of a rose-tree!’

‘ This intermixture of the sweetest scented flowers and fruit trees, in a burying ground, among the finest pieces of sculptured marble, with evergreens growing over them, in the form of arbours, and furnished with seats, cannot fail to produce in the mind of the person who views it for the first time, peculiar and uncommon feelings of domestic melancholy, mingled with pleasing tenderness.’

Though Mr. Fellowes does not inform his readers of his profession, we believe that it is military; and he alludes to it (preface, p. 7.) as one that is seldom supposed to 'allow much leisure for acquiring nicety in the art of composition.' He has, however, bestowed great pains on the plates; which are very beautiful, and, to the number of fifteen, highly ornament his work. They represent the monastery of La Trappe, the tomb of Abelard and Heloise, the castle of Clisson, and other interesting objects. As they are executed in a style of elegance, they may reconcile an *amateur* of the fine arts to pay for this volume a price to which the author could not, in conscience, advance a claim on the plea of merit in the text.

ART. III. Pananti's Narrative of a Residence in Algiers.

ART. IV. Salamé's Narrative of the Expedition to Algiers.

[Concluded from the last Review.]

SIGNOR PANANTI'S account of the transactions, with Mr. Salamé's account of which we closed our first part of this article, is written in so confused and high-flown a jargon as to puzzle the most attentive and ruffle the most sedate of readers. In his delineation of the catastrophe at Bona, he "decks his tale with more than decent horror;" and, according to him, above two hundred victims suffered! We must have better authority than a book written in an hyperbolical style, and without reference to any documents, before we credit this tragic tale; in which we suspect that the *cyphers* might actually be omitted. In his description of the battle, he says that 'Omar Bashaw, the reigning Dey, was prepared to meet the coming storm with energy correspondent to that of the assailants; and judging from his preparations to resist the attack, he evidently calculated on a desperate struggle. The fortifications had undergone considerable repairs; several new batteries were mounted, and *thirty thousand* Moors and Arabs were joined to the Turkish soldiery!' We believe that this is true, and even to a greater extent of numbers; though we read nothing of it in Mr. Salamé; nor does the Dey appear in his pages to be so very terrific a person in war as he is represented by the Italian author. His predecessor, indeed, is described by Mr. Salamé to have been in the habits of murdering people, cutting them in pieces, salting them well, putting them in jars, and to have been guilty of other atrocities equally incredible and disgusting*; and, in

* The credulity of Mr. Salamé seems to have been grossly deceived in some of the bloody and monstrous tales which he relates, and the inventive faculty of some of his informants was probably very fertile.

black cakes like those already alluded to, and thrown down, as if intended for dogs, is their principal daily sustenance ; and, had it not been for the charity of a rich Moor, who left a legacy for that purpose, Friday, the only day they are exempted from work, would have seen them without any allowance whatever. Shut up at night in the prison, like so many malefactors, they are obliged to sleep in the open corridor, exposed to all the inclemency of the seasons. In the country they are frequently forced to lay in the open air ; or, like the Troglodite of old, shelter themselves in caverns. Awoken at day-light, they are sent to work with the most abusive threats, and thus employed, become shortly exhausted under the weight and severity of their keepers' whips.

' Those destined to sink wells and clear sewers, are for whole weeks obliged to be up to their middle in water, respiring a mephitic atmosphere : others employed in quarries are threatened with constant destruction, which often comes to their relief. Some attached to the harness in which beasts of the field are also yoked are obliged to draw nearly all the load, and never fail to receive more blows than their more favoured companion the ass or mule. Some are crushed under the falling of buildings, while others perish in the pits into which they are sent to be got rid of. It is usual for one and two hundred slaves to drop off in the year, for want of food, medical attendance, and other necessities ; and woe to those who remain if they attempt to heave a sigh or complain in the hearing of their inexorable master. The slightest offence or indiscretion is punished with two hundred blows on the soles of the feet, or over the back ; and resistance to this shocking treatment is often punished with death.'

The author proceeds to confirm this account by the relation of some most distressing scenes which he witnessed personally : they are affecting, and described with much true feeling. We must also do him the justice of admiring the manly spirit with which he seems to bear up against an accumulation of losses, apparently comprizing all the property acquired during many years. — To revert to the state of the slaves, we observe other passages in the work of Mr. Pananti, from which the reader would argue that their situation was not a state of such aggravated suffering as the preceding account would lead us to imagine. Lempriere's description of slavery in Morocco affords no similar instances of cruelty, and, indeed, is altogether of a different nature. As to Tripoli and Tunis, we have the authority of other writers equally well informed, who draw a much lighter picture of human suffering under such afflictions than the authors before us. The present question, it may be said, is confined to Algiers, and reasoning by analogy may be plausible, but cannot be conclusive. We allow that there is something in the Algerine government which renders it more likely to countenance

tenance severity and cruelty than any other of the Barbary states; yet still, conceding that the treatment of their slaves is harsh, we cannot believe, on the testimony of a writer whose general style approaches so nearly to rhodomontade, that it is by any means so dreadful as he has represented to us. A few insulated acts may have afforded the materials for a general description; and the "*ab uno disce omnes*" may have been applied, as it frequently is, in so bad a manner as to make it the most unjust of all old adages.

We must turn aside from the wide field of remark, into which an examination of Mr. Pananti's historical and descriptive account of Barbary would involve us; and we refrain the more readily, because late years have afforded us a considerable degree of information on these heads, which is not the result of the passing observations of a short and forced visit, but of more settled and continued residence. Of this nature are Tully's account of Tripoli, Mr. Dupin's observations affixed to Adams's narrative, and other works. As we have also taken our leave of Mr. Abraham Salamé, we will offer a few observations on the subjects which it has been the chief aim of Mr. Pananti to press on the consideration of the public; we mean the magnificent plans of Moorish, and, perhaps, even Arab extermination generally, and of European colonization, which form the waking dreams of the Anglo-Tuscan author. Let us at the same time do him the justice to state that this part of his work retains, through the medium of the translation, a considerable portion of vigorous writing, very superior to most that preceded it, and is disfigured with much fewer instances of bad taste:—but first for a few words on the policy and probable results of the late expedition itself.*

As to the justice of the attack on Algiers, if an absolute infringement of treaties did take place, there cannot be two opinions on the subject:—but, if the immediate provocation was not so great as it had been proclaimed, and we have some reason

* It is well known that, during the most critical part of the last war, our ships in the Mediterranean, and our military stations also, derived the greater share of their supplies from the Barbary States; and that, without such assistance, there would have been great difficulty in maintaining those armaments in that quarter. In recollection of this fact, the attack on Algiers has been censured as an act of ingratitude. We do not attach much weight to this charge, because we cannot suppose that such a government would have supplied us without finding its own account in the trade: but, if this does not impeach the morality of the act, it has a strong bearing on the policy of it.

With regard to the results of this expedition, and consequent treaty, there is one to which we cannot look without some painful anticipations; and, even if a more permanent extermination of piracy had taken place than probably has been effected, our apprehensions would have been precisely the same. We allude to the case of those unfortunate persons who have suffered shipwreck on the inhospitable shore of Africa, and endured hardships among their first and more barbarous masters that nearly exceed credibility. Their only hope arises from the knowledge that their living bodies are valuable and marketable commodities to the captors, and that the best market is that in which the Christian consuls are purchasers for the sake of redemption; the ransom-money being of more value than their services as slaves. The lives of Adams, Riley, and Paddock, (assuming the credibility of their narratives,) were preserved exclusively by these means, or the men were at least thus restored to civilized society. Now, if Christian slavery be wholly abolished, according to the late treaties, and the governments do execute the conditions to which they have pledged themselves, we presume that a slave brought from the interior would recover his rights as a free-man, as soon as he reached a part of the country in which the government possessed sufficient authority to enforce its own regulations. Should this be the case, it needs no argument to prove that henceforth no Christian captive, once removed into the interior, has any chance of seeing the coast again, and may cease to indulge in any consoling speculations of a future release.

Why, however, should we enter into these melancholy speculations, when Mr. Pananti has a panacea at hand, by the extermination of Moorish dominion in northern Africa, and the establishment of European governments in its place? We cannot give the praise of originality to these politics, because a certain class of knights-errant appeared some four years since in Europe, and preached up this crusade: but, if our Italian friend be original in his views as far as he is conscious of those of modern politicians, he has probably formed his notions on the precedents to be derived from early classical history, without any very accurate reference to the comparatively insignificant scale of those political societies which have suffered in the older times. At any rate, Mr. Pananti does not seem quite to have matured the conditions on which he will permit the present inhabitants to depart in peace, or whether it shall be allowed for them "*singulis aut binis vestimentis exire*:"—the necessary stipulation of "*traditò auro atque*

atque argento" has been partially fulfilled already by the Algerines. *

This proposal, if ever deserving of a serious consideration, must be regarded in a double point of view; viz. as to the practicability of gaining possession of the country, and the possibility of retaining it when conquered. These are questions, however, which would lead into a discussion much more extensive than we could admit in our pages: but, long as that discussion might be, we think that we can see the result at which we should arrive; namely, the probable impolicy and the more probable impracticability of any such attempt.

ART. V. *Transactions of the Society instituted at London for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year 1817. Vol. XXXV. 8vo. pp. 280. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies, &c. 1818.*

AFTER the repeated opportunities of which we have availed ourselves, to express the high sense that we entertain of this Society, as conferring honour on the nation and on those individuals by whom it is munificently supported, we feel that it is more becoming to refrain from any preliminary eulogy than to indulge in it; and we shall proceed accordingly to a brief notice of the communications which are inserted in the volume before us. †

AGRICULTURE. — Under this head we have only three papers. The gold medal was adjudged to Mr. Lawson for planting 212 acres with 985,300 forest trees, chiefly larches and Scotch firs. The total expence of drainage, making roads, fences, and of the plantation itself, was 570l.

The Earl of Jersey and Mr. Grant received the silver Isis medal for recovering from the sea and embanking 300 acres of land, on the Gnoll and Britton Ferry Marshes, in Glamorganshire. The whole was before open to the influx of the sea, and covered with water several feet deep at every spring-tide, exclusively of being liable to inundation from land-floods. This tract lies on the banks of the Neath, near to its confluence with the sea, the frontage extending on the river-side 3288 yards. This was therefore the length of the embankment; its breadth was 29 feet at the base, from four

* These hard terms were occasionally enforced on captive cities and their defenders. The siege of Saguntum by Hannibal affords an instance.

† An account of the preceding volume will be found in M. R. vol. lxxxvi. p. 173.

to six feet at the top, which is flat, and its perpendicular height averaged six feet; except a part nearest to the sea, exposed to a considerable swell, where the bank is 42 feet at the base, six feet at the top, and nine feet high. Its base was formed of sods exactly fitted to each other, and let into the ground six or eight inches, with the grassy side outwards. The whole was well beaten and rammed together, so that no interstices were left for the admission of water; which, however, was suffered to flow over when the bank had been raised half its height, and so strengthened and consolidated the whole mass that little or no settlement has since occurred in the bank. The estimated expence was 1640l., and, unlike most estimates in similar cases, it covered the whole charge of the undertaking. Previously to this improvement, the land would not have let for five shillings per acre, and we have now the testimonials of several respectable persons that it is worth between 40 and 50 shillings.

Mrs. H. D'Oyly received a silver medal for having cultivated bull-rushes for the use of chair-makers in ponds, &c. where clay had been thrown out for the making of bricks, or mud and earth for the purpose of embankment. The *Scirpus Lacustris* is usually imported from Holland at an annual expence of many thousand pounds, but may be cultivated at home on spots of soil which are now perfectly useless.

The first communication under the class of CHEMISTRY is by Mr. R. Wynn, to whom a premium of twenty guineas was awarded for his receipts for enamel colours, and for staining and gilding glass: which will be prized by those who pursue the elegant art of enamelling. The preparation of the colours, it seems, has always been confined to the knowlege of a few persons, who make a mystery of it; and many artists of superior talents are prevented from exercising them with full effect, by the difficulty of preparing and of procuring a complete set of good colours. Although, for particular recipes, we must refer to the paper those persons who are engaged in the pursuit, the following method of laying on the colour in staining glass may be perused with more general advantage:

‘ The method practised by most stainers of glass is to draw the outline in Indian ink, or in a brown colour, ground with turpentine and oil, and then to float on the colour thick, having previously ground it with water. But in this way of proceeding it is very subject either to flow over or to come short of the outline, and thus render the skill of the draftsman of little effect.

‘ My method is to draw the pattern in Indian ink, and having ground the colour as fine as possible in spirits of turpentine, brought to a proper consistence with thick oil of turpentine, to add

add a little oil of spike lavender, and to cover the outline entirely with this composition.

‘ When it has become dry, I work out the colour with the point of a stick and a knife from those parts that are not intended to be stained, and am thus enabled to execute the most delicate ornaments, and most intricate designs, with exactness and precision.

‘ If the colour is required to be laid on so thick that the outline would not be visible through it, let the colour be first laid on as smoothly as possible, and when it has become dry draw the outline upon it with vermilion water-colour, and work out the design as before.

‘ Besides the precision acquired by the above method, it enables the artist to apply different shades in the same design ; whereas the old method of floating only communicates an uniform tint to the whole pattern.’

Fifteen guineas were voted to Mr. James Callendar for a method of seasoning mahogany plank in a few hours, which has hitherto not been effected in less than twelve months. According to the general course of trade, the small stuff, from two to six inches thick, used for chairs, balustrades, &c. is never seasoned, and consequently is liable to be warped. Mr. C. provides a steam-tight wooden box, capable of holding such pieces of mahogany as are fit for the above purposes; and to this box is adapted a pipe from a boiler, by means of which the box is filled with steam, the temperature of which is about equal to that of boiling water. The time required for steaming inch and a half wood is about two hours; and, if afterward removed into a warm room or workshop for the space of 24 hours, it will become dry enough to be used. It is obvious that the eggs or larvæ of insects, which may be contained in the wood, will be destroyed by the heat; and various testimonials state that, by this simple and unexpensive mode of treatment, the wood is actually improved in its colour and quality, those blemishes technically called *green veins* being entirely removed by it.

The former volume of these Transactions contained a communication, which we noticed, from Dr. Clanny, on the Safety-Lamp; and to this ingenious gentleman has now been adjudged a second premium of the Society’s gold medal for his Steam Safety-Lamp, which may be constructed of any size, from eight inches to more than three feet in height. In these lamps, the steam is constantly extricated in considerable quantity, which not only keeps the apparatus cool, but is an excellent medium for causing the fire-damp to burn silently and without explosion at the wick of the oil-lamp. Such is the strength of light, too, afforded by them, that it may be thrown to a considerable distance by mirrors into those

those parts of a mine which have too little oxygen to support light, and where the pit-men are consequently always obliged to work in darkness. These lamps give a clear light, without being trimmed, or requiring a second supply of oil, for the space of 16 hours, and will burn in situations in which Sir Humphrey Davy's Lamps have been extinguished.

The silver medal and ten guineas were voted to Mr. Stiles, for his method of preparing an extract from sprats: this gentleman had before been rewarded for his skill in curing herrings.

POLITE ARTS. — A very modest communication occurred from Mrs. Warren, of Glasgow, accompanied by an engraving, of what she terms a Piano Monitor, for which the Society awarded her the silver medal. Mrs. W., having practised music as a teacher during many years, had found that weakness in either or both of the wrists of her young pupils was one of the greatest difficulties that they had to encounter; and to remedy this imperfection she contrived a very simple instrument, which may be fixed on or taken from the Piano in a moment. It is a wooden rail, terminated at each end by a brass ferule, perforated so as to allow the rail itself to slide easily up and down two upright pins, which are fixed into a bar of wood attached to the Piano. Two steel-springs, fastened by screws into the bar, and terminating in small rollers, impart the effect of elasticity to the rail. Mrs. Warren has found this Monitor useful in giving to her pupils a steady and even touch: it raises their wrists to that height which enables them to execute with firmness; and, by having a spring, it does not deprive them of that expression and grace which might have resulted from a fixed rail.

A silver medal and ten guineas were voted to Mr. Dick for an instrument for drawing in perspective. This machine is elaborate in its construction, but simple in its application; and, by artists who are engaged in architectural delineations, where great accuracy and precision are required, it will be deemed a valuable acquisition. According to the usual mode of drawing, a great number of superfluous lines must unavoidably be used in finding those which really belong to the picture, thus perplexing the artist unnecessarily: but, by this machine, the projection of the most difficult buildings may be made without putting one superfluous line on the paper; and its manner of operation is represented as being so simple, that any person possessing a moderate knowledge of geometrical drawing, though unacquainted even with the rules of perspective, may learn its use in a very short space of time.

Without

Without the assistance of the engraving, — which, like all that are published under the sanction of this Society, is executed in a delicate and beautiful manner, — and of the explanation by which it is accompanied, it is not possible for us to render the principle of this machine intelligible. Such, indeed, must be the case with those intricate pieces of mechanism, which have given so decided a superiority to the manufactures and arts of this country, and the models of many of which are to be found in the Society's repository.

A silver medal and ten guineas were also adjudged to Mr. Warcup for the invention of a Curvagraph; an instrument, as the name implies, for the purpose of describing curve lines, and which will be found of essential use in delineating geometrical drawings of machinery: it will likewise be particularly valuable to persons engaged in naval architecture.

Mr. Wood and Mr. Hall have respectively enjoyed the honours and rewards of the Society; the former for an improved Parallel Rule, and the latter for an Angulometer, the peculiar advantage of which is that it may be opened from one to 90 degrees, without any part of the joint coming into the internal angle.

Under the head of MANUFACTURES, we find a handsome premium awarded to Mr. Saddington, for the model of a machine constructed on a new principle, to facilitate the manufacture of covered wire.

'The present invention is an improvement on the mode of covering wire in long shops or sheds, as practised by all manufacturers who have the conveniency of such premises. The long shop covering or spinning, as it is generally termed, is by doing one length of wire at a time, yet it is the most expeditious manner of covering of any in practice, and notwithstanding the velocity with which the wire is turned round, the process of covering is very tedious, the revolutions of silk or cotton round the wire being from forty to one hundred and twenty in every inch, according to the fineness and purposes for which it is wanted. But, perhaps, the average may be fairly taken on the sizes of what is mostly used, at sixty revolutions for every inch of wire, so that each separate length of wire would have to perform 43,200 revolutions in a shed of only twenty yards long; and supposing the wire to be impelled round with a velocity to make fifty revolutions in every second of time, it would require more than fourteen minutes to cover a space of twenty yards in length.

'By the present invention, six wires are all covered at one time, by which improvement, a saving is gained of five-sixths of the time occupied in the act of covering, or what may be expressed more plainly, fifty minutes are gained out of every hour so employed.'

The

The silver Isis medal was voted to Mr. Onwin for a Banding-plane for cutting ornamental lines of brass and ebony in cabinet furniture, and grooves likewise to receive them, at a single operation.

MECHANICS. — The gold Isis medal and twenty guineas were conferred on Mr. Wynn, for his very ingenious Time-keeper and Compensating Pendulum. In the construction of a time-keeper, the great difficulty to be encountered is the resistance occasioned by friction; which is continually increasing as the movement becomes clogged with dust, or with oil more or less inspissated by the change of weather. Mr. Wynn has effected a material diminution of friction in every part where it occurs in time-keepers of a common construction, and in some of the parts he has entirely removed it. Mechanism so complex and minute as that of clock-work can only be understood by reference to the model or the engraving. By this construction, it is merely necessary to oil the pivots of the friction-wheels and cylinders, and not any of those parts in contact which usually are oiled; for, as all these parts have what Mr. W. calls 'a rolling, and not a rubbing friction,' they do not require oil. Much novelty and improvement are likewise evinced in the construction of the pendulum.

To Mr. Prior the silver Isis medal and twenty guineas were likewise awarded, for his improvement on the striking part of a clock. This machine strikes the hours and repeats them with only one wheel, without fly, or pinion, rack, or step-wheel; and, when it repeats, the spring or weight does not go down in any degree, but remains as if it had not repeated.

An ingenious communication from Mr. Jones of Holborn was accompanied with the Model of a self-adjusting Crane, for which he was honoured with the Society's silver medal. The usual defect in cranes is that it is necessary to pass through as much space in raising a light load as a heavy one, unless an alteration be made in the relative velocities of the power and the load, by manually changing some wheel or pinion. This defect, on public wharfs particularly, where every succeeding load may vary in weight from that which was last raised, Mr. Jones has removed, by the invention of a crane which possesses in a great degree the property of spontaneous regulation; that is to say, an equilibrium is maintained between the power and the weight, as nearly as possible so that the person employed is scarcely aware of the difference of the weights which he is raising, except by the greater or less time required in the operation; the exertion on his part

part remaining in all cases the same. The application of the universal lever in raising weights is not new: but a principle of self-adjustment comprized in the variation of the proportionate lengths of the two arms of the lever, and that variation effected by the agency of the load itself, independently of the interference of the labourer, is a great improvement.

Mr. Barchard received the silver medal for the construction of a Cylindrical traversing Rake, for the purpose of stirring tobacco, malt, corn, hops, mustard, or any kind of seed.

To Sir John Sinclair the thanks of the Society were voted for his present of a Portable Mill for grinding flour.

'The French portable military mill, presented to the Society by the Right Hon. Sir J. Sinclair, is one of many thousands which were used by the French armies in foreign service, and particularly in the Russian campaign, in which, from the length and rapidity of the march, it was manifest that as great a reduction as possible of the heavy baggage would be necessary. On examination by the Committee of Mechanics, it appeared to combine in an eminent degree the qualities of portability, of simplicity and ingenuity of construction, of facility in making use of it, and of expedition in regard to the quantity of work done. The Society, adopting the recommendation of the Committee, resolved that a description of it should be inserted in their annual volume, in the hopes that it might be found useful, not only in an army on active or foreign service, but in workhouses, in prisons, in schools, and in private families. An ingenious mechanic, a member of the Society, has already manufactured a considerable number, which, from the ready sale and general approbation that they meet with, appear fully to justify the opinion entertained by the Committee, of the utility of the machine as a family mill.'

The whole of this apparatus, it may be observed, is contained in a box 14 inches square and eight inches high. In order to fit it for use, the mill must be fastened by means of certain iron pins, screw bolts, &c., which constitute a part of the machine, to a strong table, a cross-bar, a gun-carriage, or any other proper support which may happen to be at hand.

The silver medal and fifteen guineas were voted to Mr. Aust, for the invention of a machine for raising loaded carts, drays, or any two-wheeled carriage, and for extricating the shaft-horse if he has fallen down.—Ten guineas were likewise adjudged to Mr. Coad for a machine to enable shoemakers to work standing. Engravings accompany both the communications.

Mr. Caslon received a silver medal for an improvement in the construction of Gas-lamps; and Mr. Essex obtained the gold Ceres medal for a Winnowing Machine, which is represented as separating chaff, dirt, and all extraneous matters

ters from corn, more effectually and completely than any machine previously known. It is peculiarly adapted to be used under the threshing machine, as by one process, and by the same power necessary for the threshing machine, it clears the corn, and renders it fit for market.

Mr. Bray has availed himself of one of the properties of that most powerful of all agents, Air, namely its buoyancy, to effect a great improvement in the construction of Life-Boats. Nothing which tends to alleviate human suffering, or save human life, — nothing, particularly, which contributes to the safety of those brave fellows who expose to imminent peril their own lives in the endeavour to rescue their comrades from the horrors of shipwreck, — could fail to attract attention and receive reward from this Society. A cubic foot of air is capable of supporting 56 lbs. weight. Relying on this property, Mr. Bray fixes air-boxes under the thwarts, made of clean deal plank, free from knots, carefully planed and fitted up, and so well covered with pitch and rosin within and paint without, the nails themselves being dipped in the composition before they are driven, that the boxes are made perfectly airtight; and a great body of confined air is thus brought into advantageous operation, without any inconvenience. The simplicity of this contrivance renders it applicable to all boats, of whatever form and dimensions, without the introduction of any incumbrance.

Mr. Farey, for a Double-ball Cock to accelerate the filling and regulate the quantity of water to any required level in a cistern, received the Isis medal; as likewise did Mr. Farnham for a Steam-trap; and Mr. Preston for a Portable Deck-glass with a ventilator, which is considered to be a great improvement on the bull's eyes formerly used, as it not only gives equal light, but, by the admission of fresh air, ventilates the state-rooms of the smacks, &c. in which it has been employed, to the great relief of passengers.

Mr. Wilson was rewarded with ten guineas for his simple apparatus to supersede the barbarous and degrading employment of children in sweeping chimnies. The certificate of a chimney-sweeper attests its efficacy: it costs only half-a-guinea; and a child not more than twelve years old finds no difficulty in managing it alone.

An engraving is given explanatory of the mode by which the rudder of his Majesty's ship Arab was rendered serviceable, by Capt. Bagnold of the Marines, after having sustained material injury in a tremendous gale off Newfoundland. Three of the pintles were completely gone, the fourth was sprung three parts through, and in five minutes more the rudder must inevitably

inevitably have been lost, when the ready ingenuity of Capt. B. contrived the means of repairing it so effectually that it brought the ship into Lough Swilly, in the north of Ireland, the wind blowing hard all the way.

An elaborate and scientific communication from Dr. Davis was accompanied by a set of Craniotomy Forceps, distinguished by the additional epithets of single, curved, and double-curved; likewise a smaller instrument, intended to bring away uterine or vaginal polypi, after their previous separation from the base, and which is therefore called the Uterine Polypus Forceps. The following testimonial in favour of these instruments was signed by Dr. Sims, Sir R. Croft, and Dr. Charles Clarke:

‘ These are to certify, that we have seen and examined Dr. Davis’s craniotomy forceps, and we think that the instrument is perfectly well calculated for the purpose of extracting the child in those unfortunate cases where craniotomy is necessary. It is simple in its construction, easy of application, effective in its power, and much safer for the patient than the crotchet, or any instrument now in use.’

In consequence of the above certificate, and the strong concurrent testimony of some professional gentlemen who favoured the Committee with their personal attendance on the occasion, the Society conferred on Dr. Davis the honour of their gold medal.

The gold Isis medal was likewise voted to Mr. Conolly for a Telegraphic System. We believe that this is the plan which, under the title of an “Acadian Code of Signals,” was lately published in a small quarto volume, and duly reported in our Number for July last, p. 333.

The volume concludes with an impressive and excellent Address delivered by the Secretary, Mr. Arthur Aikin, on the 27th May, 1817, at the annual distribution by the Duke of Sussex of the rewards which had been adjudged in the course of the session. He gives a brief account of the origin and progress of this truly national society, and of the system of internal management which it has adopted from experience as best fitted to carry its objects into execution. A society consisting now of one thousand seven hundred members, from all ranks, professions, and trades, at an expence to all of some money, and to many of much valuable time, ‘collected together without any motives of private interest, without even the usual bait of convivial enjoyment, or the more respectable motive of chartered honours, is actuated, as purely and simply as it is possible for large bodies of men to be actuated, by the liberal wish of fostering merit and of communicating

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useful knowlege.' It is well observed by Mr. Aikin that, in a pecuniary point of view the rewards of this Society derived from the moderate annual contributions of individuals are comparatively of small amount, their value consists in the attendant honour, and in the consciousness of desert.

'A premium churlishly bestowed is worth just as much as the gold or silver it consists of, and no more; it is a mere pecuniary gift which, to the lowest fractional denomination, may be stated in current coin. In such a spirit, this Society has never granted its rewards, and in such a spirit we trust they have never been accepted. The olive wreath of the Olympian victors, the oaken garland of ancient Rome bestowed on those who had preserved the lives of their fellow-citizens, the medals conferred by our British Universities as the appropriate and sufficient reward for abilities and attainments of the very highest order, the Copleyan medal of our Royal Society, not to mention the honorary badges, accorded by their grateful country to those, who in these latter times of difficulty and danger have sustained the national independence at the personal risk of all that on earth can perish — these, with numerous similar examples, which I need not detail, shew how consonant it is to the very nature of man to be impelled to the highest exertions by the intellectual and moral motives of duty, of self-esteem, of honourable fame.

'Let the Society of Arts continue to regulate its proceedings on these principles; let it wisely and consistently bestow its rewards; let it be as liberal and discriminative of its praise, as of its money and its medals, and it will deserve a higher rank than that to which it has hitherto aspired.'

ART. VI. *Lectures on the History of Literature, Ancient and Modern, from the German of Frederick Schlegel.* 2 Vols 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

MR. FREDERICK SCHLEGEL is of Danish extraction, was born a Protestant, and began his literary career in a liberal spirit, as a friend of freedom: but circumstances, and the writings of Mr. Burke, have altered the direction of his opinions: he has conformed to the Romish religion, has accepted employment at the court of Vienna, and, under the patronage of Prince Metternich, (to whom the German original of this work is dedicated,) undertakes in sixteen lectures a survey of the literature of the world, with a view to discredit the philosophic and innovating class of writers, and to revive public confidence in the panegyrists of orthodox and legitimacy. His discourses, which have much literary value, were reported by us with analytical detail at p. 506 of our eighty-first volume; and, as we have there sufficiently expressed

expressed our sentiments concerning the more remarkable opinions which they contain, it will suffice if we now extract a few passages in order to exhibit the quality of the translation. The extant traces of Gothic heathenism are thus collected :

' In Saxony itself, after its submission to the yoke of Charlemagne, the theology of Odin became very soon rooted out. But even in much later times there remained many traces of its superstitions. The country people would not part with their festival of Spring, and that most innocent, most natural, and most universal of all holidays, was still hallowed with due observance at the opening of the May. Many usages of the same kind were preserved among the Christian services of the Pentecost. Even at the present day, in many of the northern districts of Germany, at that season of the year when the day is longest, great fires are kindled by night upon the mountains; a custom whose meaning has long since been forgotten, but which is beyond all doubt another relic of that ancient system so long paramount in all the regions of the north. It was natural that those traces should linger the longest among woods and hills, which were of old the favourite scenes of this Pagan worship. Even after the lapse of many Christian centuries, a superstitious reverence is still attached to some antique and spreading oaks among the forests of the Hartz and the Riesengebirgen *; in our popular poetry the odoriferous linden is still invested with its character of magic; and the branches of the willow are in the hands of every fortune-telling gipsy. Many relics of the deserted faith were indeed preserved, but they soon assumed the character of mere vulgar delusions, and sunk far below the loftiness of their old religious destination. To the inspired prophetesses and drakes of northern antiquity, succeeded the tricks, the execrations, and the midnight dance of witches; and in place of Odin's Valhalla, the majestic congregation of gods and heroes — came the hauntings of the Rheingau, and the ghostly tumults of the Night of Moonwort.

' In the mean time the theology of Odin, after being banished from its native land, found a secure asylum in the Scandinavian North; where it yielded, not till after a long struggle, late and reluctantly to the Christian faith, and from whence the knowledge of it, preserved in many glorious songs and legends, has in later days been communicated to ourselves. It is by means of these Scandinavian remains that we are now enabled to trace the poetry of the middle ages, and in particular the whole system of Teutonic opinions, to their true sources. Above all we are indebted for these advantages to the Icelandic Edda. This work seems to have received the shape in which it now appears somewhere between the 9th and the 13th centuries — between the age of Harald Harfagr, when the Normans first established themselves

* The Hills of the Giants on the borders of Bohemia.'

in Iceland, and the death of Snorro Sturleson and the suppression of the Icelandic freedom. In its later parts we find many allusions both to the Greek mythology, and to Christianity, partly introduced with a view of tracing similarities between these systems and the northern legends, partly for the purpose of connecting the history of the Scandinavian tribes with that of the ancient nations. But in the most admirable passages, and above all in the poetry of the elder Edda, there breathes, in its utmost purity, the true spirit of the northern theology. The perfect unity of this system is that which distinguishes it most remarkably from that of the Greeks. The Greek theology was perhaps too rich to permit of its being well and consistently represented in one picture. Besides, if we compare it with the northern, we cannot fail to observe a want of proper end or purpose in the whole of its arrangement. The divine and heroic world of the Greeks is perpetually losing itself in the world of men; their poetry in the world of prose and reality. But the theology of the north is consistent and entire; every thing is foretold by prophecies, and the last long expected catastrophe is a perfect close. The whole resembles one progressive poem — one tragedy. From the commencement, which teaches how the earth and the world arose out of the carcase of a benumbed giant — and the description of those happier days when the holy ash Ysdragill, began to grow green over the old abyss — (“that tree of life which extendeth its roots through all oceans, and spreads its branches over the universe”) — and the narrations how bold heroes and the friendly spirits of light overcame, in many combats, the might of the giants and the old powers of darkness — down to the last great mystery, the ruin of gods and Asae — of Odin and his comrades — the whole is one great and connected poem of nature and heroism. The real object upon which its interest depends is, as in almost all other poetical legends, the termination of a glorious and heroic world. The destiny of war is ever most hostile to the noblest, the most valiant, and the most graceful of heroes; and Odin assembles all that are slain in his Valhalla, that he may have the more friends and fellow-combatants in that last war against the power of his enemies — a war in which he is of old destined to be not the victor but the vanquished. The first incident in which this great object of the whole is set forth, is the death of Balder. As in the Trojan legends, by the death of the two noblest heroes, Hector and Achilles, so here also by the death of Balder, “the favourite of all the gods, the most beautiful of warriors” — there is shadowed out the universal decay of the heroic world. His fate is fixed by destiny; in vain does the foot of Odin tread the path to Hades. Hela, like the Theban Sphinx, gives no answer but an enigma — an enigma which is to be explained by fearful tragedies, and secure to destruction the fated prey.’

Leibnitz and Spinoza, the two greatest metaphysicians of Germany, are thus compared :

‘ Leibnitz

Leibnitz was, in one point of view, a great blessing to his country. It is very true that he was a physician who made use of palliatives, but was incapable or unambitious of effecting a radical cure; yet even this was much if we consider the wants of the time. He was a scholar as well as a philosopher, and his works contain innumerable points which call us back to those who preceded him. It is perhaps the chief fault of Leibnitz that he is too fond of reviving exploded difficulties, but even by this defect of his, he has been the most admirable harbinger of men who felt within them the spirit, the call, and the passion, to plunge more deeply into all the labyrinths of thought, and all the secrets of knowledge. He marks the point of transition from the philosophy of the seventeenth to the new mode of thinking of the eighteenth century — one of the most remarkable eras in the whole history of mankind. As he and his philosophy have never exerted much influence out of Germany, and have been little studied in France, and not at all in England, I have thought fit to pass him over in silence while treating of foreign philosophers, and reserved him for a place by himself. The same conduct has been adopted in respect to his adversary Spinoza, because he too has had a similar fate, has been little heard of either in his own country or in England, and not at all in France, but been zealously defended and attacked by Germans alone. Spinoza's greatest error, that of making no distinction between God and the world, is one of the most pernicious nature. He denied to individual beings independence and self-direction, and saw in them all only various manifestations of one eternal and all-comprehending existence; he thus took personality from the Deity, and freedom from man, and by representing all that is immoral, untrue, and impious, as appearances, not realities, he went far to destroy all distinction between good and evil. This error is so intimately connected with the doctrines of unassisted reason, that it is probably the very oldest of all the falsities which sprung up in the room of the truth originally communicated to mankind by his Maker. But Spinoza threw pantheism into a more scientific shape than it ever possessed before his time. The error itself is one so natural to scientific and self-confident reason, that Descartes, from whose system that of Spinoza immediately sprung, was prevented only by the want of depth and decision in his spirit, from falling into the abyss upon the brink of which he stood. In this, as in many other cases, we must be careful to separate the error from the person. It frequently happens that he who first opens up a new path of error, who even thoroughly prepares it, and points it out in the most decided and fearless manner, is nevertheless far less dangerous than his followers who pursue the same track without the same confidence. The morality of Spinoza is not indeed that of the Bible, for he himself was no Christian, but it is still a pure and noble morality, resembling that of the ancient Stoics, perhaps possessing considerable advantages over that system. That which makes him strong when opposed to adversaries who do not understand or feel his depth, or who, unconsciously, have

fallen into errors not much different from his, is not merely the scientific clearness and decision of his intellect, but in a much higher degree the open-heartedness, strong feeling and conviction with which all that he says seems to gush from his heart and soul. We cannot call this a natural inspiration, such as that which animates the poet, the artist, or the naturalist, still less the inspiration of the supernatural world, for where can this find a place when there is no faith in an effective Deity? But it is a thorough and penetrating impression and feeling of the eternal, which accompanies him in all the ranges of his thought, and lifts him above the world of the senses. The remarkable error which lies at the root of all his philosophy is indeed a pernicious and detestable one, and it might appear as if nothing could be worse. Yet if we compare the error of Spinoza with the atheism of the eighteenth century, we shall be at no loss to discover a mighty difference between them. That material philosophy, if we must give it such a name, which explains every thing by matter, and gives the first place to sense, is an error which seems almost to lie lower than the region of humanity. Rarely, among particular individuals who have embraced such a system, can there be much reason to hope for a return to truth; although there can be no difficulty in conceiving that an age or nation, which has seen its pernicious moral consequences openly displayed, should throw it off with abhorrence. The high spirituality, on the contrary, of that other error into which Spinoza fell, may well appear to leave greater means and more open paths for reformation.

The translation is throughout executed with honourable fidelity and satisfactory elegance; and it will secure to its author the praise of knowing how to interpret a difficult writer, without sacrificing his characteristic peculiarities.

ART. VII. *The Life of James the Second, King of England, &c.* collected out of Memoirs writ of his own Hand. Together with the King's Advice to his Son, and His Majesty's Will. Published from the original Stuart Manuscripts in Carlton House, by the Rev. J. Stanier Clarke, LL. B. F. R. S. Historiographer to the King, Chaplain of the Household, and Librarian to the Prince Regent. 4to. 2 Vols. pp. 750. and 678. 6l. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE demand on our attention by books of travels, politics, and other subjects of fugitive interest, is often such as to cause an unavoidable delay in the report of works of a different character; we mean such as record transactions of old date, and are calculated less for direct perusal than for occasional reference and permanent deposit on the shelves of a library. It would, however, evince a reprehensible indifference to the value of our historical documents, to pass over

so considerable an addition to them as a life of James II.; which, though the author is not positively known, has evidently been compiled from memoirs written by that sovereign. The public were long since apprized by Mr. Fox of the unfortunate loss, in the confusion of the French Revolution, of those original memoirs which Mr. Hume saw at the Scots College at Paris, and might term without exaggeration “a prodigious literary curiosity:” but there happily remained in Italy a variety of papers belonging to the Stuart family, and in particular the four volumes of MS. from which the present work has been printed. This MS., composed evidently somewhat more than a century ago, was handed down from one race of the royal exiles to another; until, on the death of the Duchess of Albany, daughter of the well-known Pretender, it fell into the possession of Abbé James Waters of Rome: with whom Sir John Hippisley, acting on the part of the Prince Regent, made in 1806 an agreement for their transfer to England and deposit at Carlton-house, in consideration of an annuity to the Abbé. The existing hostilities with France, and especially the acrimony with which commercial transactions were prohibited after our Orders of Council in 1807, rendered it a matter of no little hazard and trouble to convey these precious documents from Italy to England; and it was not till 1810 that the transaction was finally accomplished.

These MSS. contain no explicit notice either of their author or the date of their composition, but there was obviously an interval of several years in the completion of them; and it seems beyond a doubt that the writer was a member of the Scots College at Paris, of the name of Innes: but whether he was a Mr. Lewis Innes, cotemporary with James II., or a Mr. Thomas Innes, who lived a short time afterward, and was the author of a “Critical Essay on the ancient Inhabitants of Scotland,” is a matter of uncertainty on which, as on other points of intricacy, we derive very little aid from the remarks of the Rev. Editor. — The great variety of matter contained in the first volume will be best explained by the following summary of the

Table of Contents.

- 1633. Birth of James, 14th October.
- 1648. He escaped from England in disguise.
- 1652. He took service as a volunteer in the French army under Turenne; who in the name of the young King (Louis XIV.) opposed the adverse party of La Fronde, which was aided by the Spaniards, and directed by the Prince of Condé. In this capacity, James made four campaigns; chiefly in Flanders.

1656. Peace being concluded between Cromwell and the court of France, James left that country, and entered into the Spanish service.

1657, 1658. His campaigns with the Spanish army in Flanders.

1660. The Restoration: marriage of James to the daughter of Chancellor Hyde.

1664. The first Dutch war: the command of the fleet given to James.

1665. The great sea-fight, 3d June, followed by the retreat of the Dutch to the Texel: 120,000l. voted to James for his bravery and conduct: the plague in London.

1666. The French take part in the war, on the side of the Dutch: the great fire of London.

1667. Peace of Breda with the Dutch: removal of Clarendon, father-in-law of James.

1669. Conversion of James to the Catholic faith: commencement of the secret treaty between Charles II. and Louis XIV. for an attack on Holland, and the assumption of absolute power in England.

1671. Death of James's first wife.

1672. War, in conjunction with France, against Holland: James commands the fleet, and fights a sanguinary but indecisive action with the Dutch, 6th June, in Solebay.

1673. The Test-act, passed in this year, obliged James, as a Catholic, to resign the command of the navy: his marriage with a Princess of Modena, also a Catholic.

1674. Peace with Holland: beginning of the attempts in Parliament to exclude James from the succession to the crown.

1675. Proposal of the marriage of Mary, James's eldest daughter, to the Prince of Orange.

1676. (October.) Conclusion of the marriage by order of Charles II.

1678. The Popish plot: animated debates in Parliament on the exclusion of James from all public affairs.

1679. James withdraws from England: farther parliamentary debates on the exclusion of James, who returns to London in autumn, and is sent to Scotland.

1680. Continued discussions in parliament on the exclusion of James from the succession.

1681. Parliament dissolved, and no more convened under Charles II.

1682. James at last brought back to London by the influence of the Duchess of Portsmouth with Charles II.

1683. The Rye-house plot discovered, and a complete triumph of James's party over the opposition.

1684.

1684. Marriage of Anne, James's second daughter, to the Prince of Denmark.

1685. Death, 6th February, of Charles II., followed by the undisputed accession of James.

The writer of these memoirs, whoever he may have been, has no claim to the encomium of the critic in point of style: for he confines himself to a mere recital, enlivened by no embellishment, and very frequently encumbered by the long sentences which were in fashion a century ago.

Facts, however, are the matters which we desire in such a work; and of these we are fortunate enough to find, from time to time, very interesting details. We turned with some eagerness to the account of the first Dutch war, which commenced in 1664, and is attributed, by the high authority of Lord Clarendon, to the impatient ardour of his son-in-law: but no admission to this effect is made in the memoirs; and considerable stress is laid (pp. 401, 402.) on the encroachments of the Dutch on our trade, and on the unwillingness of their government to give satisfaction. On other points, the memoirs are much more explicit. — After the sanguinary conflict with the Dutch, 3d June, 1665, and their retreat to their own coast, much disappointment was excited, both in our fleet and at home, on account of their vessels, though heavy sailors, having gotten out of our reach in the night; and the enemies of James II. did not scruple to add the charge of timidity to the long catalogue of his defects: but it is clear from this work (vol. i. p. 415.), as from Clarendon and other authorities, that the fault lay with one Brounker, a groom of the Duke's bed-chamber, who, apprehensive that the quick sailing of the vessel might carry it into the midst of the enemy, came on deck at night with a feigned order from his master. A clear account is given some time afterward of a very mysterious transaction, — the private treaty concluded in 1669 between Louis XIV. and Charles II.; by which our unworthy ruler covenanted to become a Catholic, and to join in alliance with France, on condition of an annual pension of 200,000*l.* This event led to that most unjust of all our wars, the attack on the Dutch in 1672; a measure which we find (vol. i. p. 450.) opposed by James, not from jealousy of France, and still less from a liberal and enlightened disposition towards the Dutch, but from a calculation that the unavoidable expences of the contest would involve the King in difficulties, and prevent the execution of James's favourite project, — the introduction of the Catholic faith into England. This objection, however, was over-ruled by Charles; who, on this and other occasions, acted an artful and dissimulating part.

part towards his brother; communicating his resolutions by halves, and leading him on step by step, at times by persuasion and at other times by promises, and, when the case required it, by command. All this was strikingly exemplified in the transactions relative to the marriage of Mary, the eldest daughter of James, with the Prince of Orange, a project conceived by Charles and his ministers, not from the slightest wish to give security to the Protestant faith or consistency to our continental alliances, but merely as an expedient to stand well with the parliament and the public in pecuniary affairs. As these reasons could not be urged to James for bestowing his daughter on a prince whom he did not like, we find Charles (vol. i. p. 501.) preparing him for the measure in a very gradual and artful manner; first proposing to send over Lord Arlington to Holland, and adding Lord Ossory to the embassy on discovering James's objections to the former. The negociation went on, but with little farther communication to James; until, in the autumn of 1677, the Prince of Orange appeared in England, addressed himself to Charles, and urged that the matrimonial part of his business should be settled before they entered on political discussions. James demanded postponement, and Charles appeared to acquiesce, but allowed the matter to proceed privately; and, when farther delay could not be avoided, he intimated to his brother (p. 511.) the absolute necessity of complying with the wish of the Prince.

Another explanation, equally important, exposes (p. 515.) the first imposture in the case of the popish plot: but it is needless to detain our readers on a transaction which has long been considered by all impartial men as one of the basest machinations in our history. The circumstances that led, in 1682, to the unexpected recall of James from his exile in Scotland, are related (vol. i. p. 722.) at considerable length, and furnish a curious specimen of court-intrigue. It was the artful and avaricious Duchess of Portsmouth who accomplished with Charles that which no solicitations on the part of James or his friends had been able to effect. The King's health being uncertain, that prudent lady determined to realize a large sum of money, and place it in some secure fund abroad: but, Charles being too much straightened to afford her this additional supply out of his own funds, the alternative was to request James to settle on her, out of his revenue, and for a period of 50 years, a rent-charge of 5000*l.* a-year, which the Duchess meant to mortgage for a loan of 100,000*l.* James acceded to this proposition: after which the Duchess forsook the cause of his opponents, and urged

urged by every means in her power the recall of the Duke from Scotland. On his coming to England, in March, 1682, the attorney-general was ordered to prepare the necessary writings for the conveyance; when it was discovered, to the surprize of all except James, that no act relative to the appropriation of his income could be valid unless it was sanctioned by parliament. An application to the legislature for such a purpose would have been wholly unadvisable: but James, after having been graciously received at court, could not, with any consistency, be sent back; and the indefatigable Duchess, now forced to look elsewhere for her money, discovered the secret pension to the King lately renewed by the court of France, and intercepted from it, notwithstanding all the embarrassments of Charles, a quarterly allowance of 10,000*l.* sterling.

Vol. II. Abstract of the Table of Contents.

1685. Attempted invasion by the Duke of Monmouth; its failure, followed by his death, and the cruelties of Kirk and Jefferies in the west of England.

1686. Proceedings of James in favour of the Catholics; an ambassador sent to Rome; Catholic chapels built.

1687. Opposition to the King at Oxford about Magdalen College; farther favours to the Catholics; dissatisfaction of the public.

1688. Birth of James's son: trial of the seven bishops: general discontent of the nation: preparations, in August and September, of the Prince of Orange: recall by James of several of his measures in favour of the Catholics: landing of the Prince, 5th November, in Torbay. James withdraws from London, 10th December, but, being stopped at Feversham, is brought back, and does not finally leave the kingdom until 24th December.

1689. James goes from France to Ireland: failure of the siege of Londonderry: his operations in other respects successful.

1690. Reverses of James in Ireland: loss of the battle of the Boyne, 1st July, after which he returns to France. Battle off Benchy-head, 30th July, in which the French fleet are successful against the English and Dutch.

1691. Continued correspondence between James and a number of his adherents in England: final submission of Ireland to William.

1692. Preparations for a descent by the French in England: defeated, by the decisive battle of La Hogue, on the 19th and 20th of May.

1693.

1693, 4, 5, 6. James remains at St. Germain's: continued correspondence with his adherents in England.

1697. Peace of Ryswick: James protested against the treaty.

1698. James retires in a great measure from worldly occupation, and gives an increased attention to religious duties.

1701. His death on the 16th of September.

The events related in this volume are of great importance; being in the first place the acts of James from his accession in February, 1685, to his flight in December, 1688: but they are of too great notoriety to require any notice on the present occasion. A similar remark applies to the military operations of James in Ireland in 1689 and 1690, particularly the long siege of Londonderry and the battle of the Boyne. The portion of the narrative that is new relates to the difficulty of receiving assistance from France, and the differences which prevailed among the counsellors of James. In July, 1690, he returned to France, and had his hopes raised to a great pitch both by the victory of the French at Fleurus in Flanders, and by the naval conflict off Beachy-head: which flattering expectations actuated him during nearly two years, until the prospect was once more overcast by the memorable battle of La Hogue. From this time forwards, he was less sanguine, considered Providence as disposed to visit him with mortification, and sought relief in the consolations of religion. Still the armies of France stood their ground in the Netherlands, and the adherents of James in England continued to correspond with him: when at last the peace of Ryswick in 1697, the acknowledgement of King William by Louis XIV., and the advanced years of James, concurred to set the question at rest, and disposed the royal exile more and more to pious meditation. In this state of mind, he derived comfort from an occasional retreat to the well-known monastery of La Trappe, and visited Paris only at the times of great religious solemnities. He thus brought himself to consider all his failures as trials imposed on him by a benevolent Providence, and dismissed every idea of revenge or even ill will towards his enemies.

The latter half of the volume, comprizing the time (from 1690 to 1701) which James passed in retirement, treats of transactions hitherto less open to the research of historians, and for which MS. memoirs are an authority of great interest. It is here that we find a notice of the correspondence kept up between the deposed sovereign and his former servants, Godolphin, Marlborough, Admiral Russell, and others. No inquiry connected with the memoirs of James is more interesting

ing than how far these distinguished servants of the state, particularly Marlborough and Godolphin, can be accused of want of fidelity to King William by corresponding with the exiled monarch. The great charge against our illustrious General is the letter of 4th May, 1693, conveying intelligence of the intended expedition from Portsmouth against the harbour of Brest. Macpherson was the first who adduced this foul accusation, on the authority of the memoirs of James, by publishing a copy of the letter in the documents appended to his "*History of England from 1688 to 1715* *:" Dalrymple repeated the charge; and the present narrative contains an assertion to the same effect: but the name of Churchill is inserted (as it often happens in this MS.) in a different hand, or at least at a date subsequent to the writing of the text. Those who know the habitual inaccuracy of Dalrymple, and the doubtful veracity of Macpherson, will lay but little stress on such part of the evidence as depends on them; and it is remarkable that the original of this letter could not be found when it was sought, above forty years ago, among the Stuart papers at Paris. Still we must not allow our partiality for the man who afterward covered our arms with glory, to carry us farther than the expression of a doubt;—founded partly on the disappearance of the original, and partly on the very explicit nature of the alleged communications, while most of Marlborough's letters to King James were couched in very general terms. An author of great weight in all that relates to MS. documents, and of whose history of Marlborough we hope shortly to lay a report before our readers †, seems to have no doubt of the authenticity of this particular document: but he considers the whole correspondence of Marlborough and Godolphin with James as prompted, not by any desire to thwart the measures of King William, but by an anxiety to secure for themselves a pardon in the event of a change of sovereign.

We were not a little curious to know how a writer, who claims for James the character of great humanity, could extenuate his approbation of the inhuman conduct of Jefferies in the west of England. This author meets the charge by a positive assurance (p. 43.) that the King was adverse to these excesses, and was not informed of their extent until too late: but how is this palliative to be reconciled with the honours showered on that unworthy occupant of the bench; who, after his return to London, and when his enormities were known

* Macpherson's original Papers, vol. i. p. 487.

† Coxe, in his *Life of Marlborough*, vol. i. pp. 43. 59.

in all their extent, was raised to the rank of Chancellor? The author fully establishes the assertion (made long since on the authority of the Stuart papers), that the treaty of Ryswick contained a secret stipulation for the succession of the son of James to the throne of England, on condition of his being educated in the Protestant faith. He is, however, very far from confirming the animated apostrophes attributed by traditionary report, on more occasions than one, to James; who, when told of the advantage obtained by the French over the English in the naval action of Beachy-head, (30th of July, 1690,) is said to have exclaimed "*C'est la première fois que vous les avez battus :*" instead of this, we find him (p. 409.) "applauding himself exceedingly for having come over from Ireland at that opportune moment." The battle of La Hogue is described circumstantially: but, far from sanctioning the report that James entreated his allies to spare his former subjects, it represents him (p. 494.) proposing to put a strong body of landmen on board the French ships that were run aground, as the only means of keeping up an effectual fire, and of repelling the armed boats of the English who were about to attack them.

Though at all times an active and diligent man of business, James had acquired, from passing his youth abroad, too much of that love of pleasure which was so unfortunately predominant in his brother: but his advice to his son (vol. ii. p. 625.) contains the most anxious exhortation to beware of giving way to the influence of women, and enforces, from the example of the French as well as the English court, the pernicious effects of such influence both on the personal tranquillity of a prince and on his conduct in public affairs. We give the passage in the orthography of the age.

' Princes if they once let themselves go, and give themselves up to these unlawfull and dangerous affections, are more exposed to the sensure of the world then others of a lower sphere, and have much more to answer for then others for the ill example they give, and are as lyable to all the chagrins of men of less figure, and none more apt to be deceived then themselves, for the most part tis not for themselves, let them really be never agreeable in their persons or conversations, but for their quality and being in a condition to make great settlements for them and to satisfy their vanity. I speak knowingly, and nothing but what I have seen, and has been related to me by undeniable witnesses, and I never knew or heard of but one, who did not one way or other deceive their galant, and am persuaded that she was misled meerly by the love of the person of the Prince which she has shew'd by her quitting the world and going into a Nunnery of a Very strict rule, where she has lived ever since a great example

example of penance and mortification.* — Would but Kings, Princes, and great men, consider and take warning of these kind of dangerous women, they would sooner take a Viper into their bosome, then one of these false and flattring creatures. — When at a club of some of the mutinous and antimonarchicall Lords and Commons, it was proposed by some to fall upon the Mistresses (of Charles II.), the Lord Mordant the father, sayd, By no means, let us rather erect Status for them, for were it not for them the King would not run in debt, and then would haue no need of us: you see how carefull Kings as well as other People ought to be not to lett themselves be led away by any Vice; the inconveniencys are great and fatal, for had not the King your Vncle had that weakness which crept in him insensibly and by degrees, he had been in all apearance a great and happy King, and had done great things for the glory of God and the good of his Subjects. — I do assure you, that the King my Brother was never two days together without having some sensible chagrin and displeasur, and, I say it knowingly, never without uneasinesse occasion'd by those Women: tis not proper for his and their sakes to enter into particulars, or els I would do it exactly, by which it would appear how little faith or sence of kindnesse they had for him, who shew'd them such marks of his concerne and of his liberality, nay profusness to them, what care they tooke to enrich themselves, to gett marks of favor, preferment, and other conveniences on their relations, or such as made their Court to them, how unfitt so ever they might be, never considering any thing but themselves, not caring how they expos'd the King, so they gratifyd their pride, their covetous humor, or revenge on those (*who*) would not make their court to them, letting themselves be made use on by privat cabals and publick enemys of the Crown, to the great prejudice of the Governement, which was very apparent in the disgrace of the Lord Chancellor Hyde, and the carrying on so far and so violently the Exclusion against me; the first instance proceeded from revenge, and the latter from Love of mony, the factious party having promist the Lady then in power, one hundred thousand pounds if she could prevaile with the King to consent to it, I mean the Exclusion, and truly she did her weake endeavours for (as she has since owned to me) she beg'd on her knees the King to consent to it.'

This work, though of great interest to a writer or to a grave inquirer after historic truth, possesses little attraction for the current reader; the narrative being frequently tedious, and discovering no taste in the selection of circumstances, and no great political sagacity in either the writer or his royal master. As an example, we may cite, with regard to James, the ignorance in which he so long remained respecting the projects of the Prince of Orange in 1688; and, on the

* He probably alludes to the Duchess de la Valiere.

part of the writer, the character (vol. i. p. 432.) of Lord Clarendon, in which we find a mere summary of his life, without any attempt to discriminate the leading qualities of a man who was so intimately connected with both Charles and James. The book is printed literally from the MS., and bears, like the original, marks of considerable variation in the orthography: but this was not unusual in the days of undefined grammar. The great attraction of the work is the introduction of long extracts from the lost MS. of James; and fortunately this appeal to authentic documents takes place generally on questions of the greatest importance. We are sorry to be unable to add any commendatory tribute to the reverend editor; who really has performed very little except the duty of giving to the public a faithful impression of the original. Nothing can be more lame or worse arranged than his preface; in which (p. 25.) the battle of Marston-moor in 1644 is anachronically introduced with regard to the secret treaty of Charles II. with France in 1669. To find, also, the 'historiographer of the King' making quotations from Dalrymple's Memoirs, with all apparent confidence in the judgment of that singular writer, must be not a little mortifying to those who are capable of appreciating the merits of our historical authorities. Elucidations of obscure points in the much disputed period of Charles II. would have been a most acceptable tribute from an editor to the public: but what shall we think of the statement (vol. i. contents, p. 73.) in which all the vulgar allegations against Lord Shaftesbury are repeated, without any notice, or apparent knowledge, of the judicious and eloquent discrimination made with regard to that nobleman by Mr. Fox, in the letter prefixed to his History of James II.?

The Memoirs conclude with a copy of the Will which James drew up before he left England in the end of 1688, and with his advice to his son, Prince Edward, already mentioned. An Appendix contains extracts from the *Icon Basilike*; which would be read by the public with great attention, were it not now in a manner an ascertained point that this celebrated work was the composition not of a royal author, but of Dr. Gauden *, afterward bishop of Exeter.

* See Macdiarmid's Lives of British Statesmen, p. 542.

Part VIII. *A History of Whitby, and Streoneshalk Abbey; with a Statistical Survey of the Vicinity to the Distance of Twenty-five Miles.* By the Reverend George Young, with the Assistance of some Papers left by the late Mr. R. Winter, and some Materials furnished by Mr. J. Bird. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 960. With Plates. Longman and Co.

A HISTORY of Whitby, composed by Charlton, but not remarkable for accuracy, preceded and prepared this superior work. The late Francis Gibson, of the Society of Antiquaries, had provided some drawings and some manuscript notes with the view of editing Charlton anew: but he relinquished the task in 1792 to Mr. Richard Winter, who continued to accumulate materials, and issued a prospectus of the intended publication, for which subscriptions were received. Mr. Winter, however, also died, leaving his papers in a less forward and finished state than they were expected to be.

These papers have since passed into the hands of the Reverend George Young, a truly meritorious antiquary; who, in conjunction with his friend Mr. Bird, a cultivator of natural history, has prepared them for the press. The portions provided by Mr. Winter are inclosed in brackets, and severally distinguished; the vacancies, or rather the vast deficiencies, are admirably filled up by personal research; and additional illustrations, graphic and literary, are carefully provided. Mineralogical matter has also been appended by Mr. Bird; and various individuals, who have communicated family-manuscripts, or subordinate articles of information, are named with becoming and appropriate gratitude in the preface. The entire work forms a learned and comprehensive account of the district to the topography of which it is consecrated; and it will be considered as a welcome addition to those libraries which are intended to include the voluminous set of our county-histories. So much Saxon learning, indeed, so judicious a criticism of monuments, so compressed a collocation of materials, and so complete an inclusion of every expedient topic, are seldom to be found in the local chroniclers: if England be the proper study of Englishmen, they usually aspire to make it the study of a life: but Mr. Young forms an honourable exception, and has been employing his studies to spare the labour of his readers.

The first book gives a general history of the district, and is divided into three chapters, treating of the original inhabitants, or Roman period; of the barbarian invasions, or Danish period; and of the Anglo-Norman or English ascendancy.

ascendancy. The first of these sections, however, does not teach a sound antiquarian doctrine. The author says, p. 5, that Britain was originally inhabited by Celts: but Pinkerton has proved that the Caledonians of Agricola were Goths, not Celts; and that the Celts are posterior intruders into the northern shires, and went thither from Ireland. All the eastern half of Great Britain was aboriginally settled by Goths, by the Piks, Viks, or pirates, from the German coast. The Romans called the eastern part of Britain *the Saxon shore*, and appointed their earliest prefect over it by the title of Count of the Saxon shore; so that, in the time of the Romans, the Saxon language prevailed there already. In London, English was spoken long before Hengist landed in the Isle of Thanet. From the firth of Forth to the firth of the Thames, not a single river, hill, or town, has a Celtic appellation. Camden, a prejudiced Welshman, who wrote early, and has been unthinkingly copied by too many of our antiquaries, founded the indefensible theory that the Welsh had peopled the eastern half of Britain; whereas the relative extent of the Saxon and the Welsh languages sufficiently shews that the earliest and most numerous tribe of settlers must have come from among the Saxons. — The Danish and Norman periods are given by the present authors with greater research and sounder judgment than the Roman.

Book II. undertakes the history of the abbey of Streonshalh, and includes a diffusive sketch of the ecclesiastical history of the neighbourhood. It is divided into fifteen chapters, which treat (1.) of the introduction of Christianity and of monastic institutions. More information might have been collected from the Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish, and Danish sagas, and the other literary remains of the Piks concerning the state of heathen religion on the eastern coast of Britain before the adoption of Christianity. A critical treatise on the mythology of the Gothic north remains a desideratum in our literature; it would assist the antiquary to illustrate many dark epochs, and the poet to embellish many daring enterprizes. (2.) Of the foundation of the monastery of Streoneshalh by the Lady Hilda. (3.) The synod of Streoneshalh. (4.) Cædmon the poet, and other celebrated men connected with the monastery. In this section, occur some peculiar translations from the poems ascribed to Cædmon, which differ considerably from the versions of Dr. Sayers and of Mr. Sharon Turner, but which are certainly intitled to the praise of being derived from a sound knowledge of the original language. (5.) Cell at Hacknes founded. (6.) Life of Ælfleda, and plunder of the monastery.

by the Danes. (7.) Restoration of the monastery under the modern name of Whitby. The author thinks that the contiguous village was thus named from the *whiteness* of the houses built with the ruins of the first monastery: but we rather incline to suspect that the Danes, who took possession of Streoneshalh, and settled there, came from the island of Wissby in the Baltic, and that they called their new dwelling place after their old country. The Saxons always change the *s* of the Danish and German dialects into *t*; and thus *weiss* becomes *white*, *heiss* becomes *hot*, *schweiss* becomes *sweat*, and *kessel*, *kettle*. To be a colony from Wissby is a truly illustrious origin. That island is the Amalfi of the north; and the earliest code of maritime law, which grew to be international among the Gothic tribes and the Anseatic cities, had its beginning at Wissby. (8.) Of the abbots William, Nicholas, Benedict, and their successors. (9.) Possessions, privileges, immunities, and revenues of the monastery. Some information, now first promulgated, and derived from a manuscript *Whitby Register* in the possession of Mrs. Catharine Cholmley, occurs in this curious section. (10.) Securities for the monastic possessions; feudal services given or required. (11.) Disputes and agreements concerning the rights and possessions of the abbey. (12.) Buildings of the monastery, and the cells, hermitages, hospitals, churches, and chapels belonging to it. Graphic illustrations of the remaining ruins adorn this section. (13.) Officers of the monastery, and eminent men attached to it. State of learning and of religion. (14.) Account of neighbouring monasteries. (15.) Dissolution of the monasteries, and ecclesiastical history of the ensuing æra. A puritanic yet tolerant spirit pervades the author's remarks on the Reformation: he approves the austere sabbaths of the reformers, which have no precedent in Jewish antiquity: but he recommends an universal liberty of conscience, and a political equality between sects of opinion.

The third book, with which the second volume commences, gives the history of the town of Whitby. (1.) General view of the rise and progress of the town, from the earliest accounts to the present time. (2.) Description of the town in its present state, its extent, and population. On this last subject, we have some curious observations:

‘ It appears that the whole population of Whitby, including what may be called the suburbs, amounts to 10,203 souls; and would not reach 10,000, were we to exclude the straggling houses in the vicinity. From the care which has been taken in preparing this statement, its correctness may be depended on. It probably comes

comes within 20 or 30 of the truth, and it is undoubtedly within 50 or 60 of the precise number at the period mentioned. Where the population is so great, perfect accuracy is perhaps unattainable; for, even while the list is making up, the numbers are changing. The author, when engaged in this part of his labour, was forcibly struck with the shortness of life, and the mutability of all human affairs. While he was numbering one district, another which had been taken was diminished by deaths and migrations, or increased by births and by new inhabitants. He seemed to be measuring the waters of a river, which will not stop till their dimensions be taken, but still roll on while the line is applied to them.

Several curious particulars, connected with the population of Whitby, deserve to be noticed. It contains no less than 124 families, or houses, in which there is no male, and 34 in which there is no female: in almost all of the latter, and in a great number of the former, there is but one individual in each. In the house of Mr. Geo. Gibson, at the ropery beside Spital bridge, there are four successive generations living under one roof; and, a few months previous to the taking of this account, there were in that house three complete couples in succession, with the offspring of the last couple. In another family, named Robinson, in Sandgate, there are twelve brothers, all seamen; — a circumstance perhaps without a parallel. There are also at present (in December, 1816,) in the family of Mr. Ralph Greenbury, the parish-clerk of Whitby, three children produced at one birth, two boys and a girl, all healthy and likely to live: they were born, however, after the population list was taken.

It will appear from the above statement, that instead of allowing five persons to each family, in estimating the population we ought scarcely to allow more than four; there being in Whitby 10,061 persons (deducting 142, the population of the poor-houses) to 2419 families, giving an average of 25 persons to six families. There are some families, indeed, consisting of 12, 13, 14, 15, or even 16 persons; but, on the other hand, there are many tenements containing only one individual in each.' —

In connection with the population of Whitby, the surnames of the inhabitants may be noticed as an object of curiosity. Many of them are of Norman origin; as Morley, Barry, Percy, Bovill, Pecket, Beaumont, Pinkney, Vipond, Petch, Ward, Boyes, Hastings, Mennel, &c.: many are Christian names transformed into surnames, sometimes with the addition of *s*; as Andrew, Adams, Roberts, Charles, Cuthbert, Watt (contraction of Walter), Jacks, Thomas, &c. A large proportion of the surnames have been formed by the addition of son to Christian names, sometimes contracted and sometimes at full length; as Richardson, Dickin-son, Dickson (often spelt Dixon), Robertson, Robinson, Robison, Robson, Johnson, Jackson, Harrison (for Henryson,) Watson (for Walterson), Thomson, Williamson, Willison, Wilson, &c. This class of surnames may be traced to the custom that pre-

vailed

vailed before the general use of surnames, of distinguishing persons, especially those who had no lands, by adding the name of their father ; of which numerous instances occur in the records of the abbey : thus, John the son of Andrew would become John Anderson ; Henry the son of Hodge, would be Henry Hodgson, or Hudson. Another large class must have originated in the custom of calling persons by the names of the towns or districts where they had property, or from whence they had come : and here, as might be expected, the names of numbers of places in the vicinity may be noticed ; as Lyth, Newholm, Ellerby, Boulby, Gisborne (the old name of Guisborough), Loftus, Moorsom, Garrick, Skelton, Wilton, Sneton, Seamer, Cloughton, Scawby, Stainton, Pickering, Rosdale, Kildale, Farndale, Bransdale, Langdale, Teasdale, Trowsdale (or Troutsdale), Stockton, &c. A multitude of names have been derived from employments or professions ; as, Smith, Mason, Wright, Skinner, Barker, Walker, Chapman, Cooper, Slater, Baker, Baxter, Plowman, Horseman, Potter, Collier, Fidler, Carter, Cook, Kitchenman, Barber, Gardiner, Yeoman, Miller, Turner, Webster, &c. Others are names of offices or dignities, for some of which it is not easy to account ; as King, Lord, Noble, Judge, Ruler, Marshall, Knight, Cavalier, Major, Steward, Clark, Elder, &c. Not a few are names of animals ; of the feathered race, as Bird, Peacock, Swan, Crow, Wren, Dove, Nightingale, Woodcock, Thrush, Duck, Martin, Gosling ; of the finny tribes, as Ling, Codling, Herring, Flounders ; and of the quadrupeds, as Lamb, Kid, Hind, Hart, Buck, Stott, Bacon, and Bullock. Some names are derived apparently from different kinds of vegetable productions ; as Oakwood, Hazlewood, Ash, Rountree, Beech, Rose, Oates, Pescod, Bloom : some from colours ; as Green, Black, White, Gray, Brown, Reid, Orange : some from the different parts of a house ; as Hall, Kitchen, Chambers, Garret, Corner : a few from various small articles ; as Stocking, Patten, Buckle, Potts, Blades, Trap, Stamp, Scales, and Ringbolt : and a great number from various places or things upon the face of the ground ; as Hill, Dale, Wood, Forest, Groves, Craig, Burns, Banks, Waters, Wells, Pool, Cliff, Croft, Mead, Moss, Close, Garth ; as also Castle, Towers, Bell, Cross. Several are connected with the weather ; as Gales, Storm, Weatherhill, Raine, Snowball, Snowden, Winter, Summerson. Many are derived from qualities or relations ; as Good, Trueman, ~~Tellur~~ Strong, Hardy, Doughty, Speedy, Idle, Cowart, Sharp, ~~Meek~~ Proud, Jolly, Young, Younger ; to which we may add Anger, and Goodwill. Some have arisen from countries or provinces ; as Britton, England, Scott, Welch, French, and Frank : and a great variety must be ascribed to accident, whim, or jest ; as Unthank, Argument, Duel, Gambles, Golightly, Boansides, Heavisides, Handisides, Sidebottom, Blackbeard, Milestone, and Eyeblisters.

- (3.) Harbour, piers, quays, drawbridge, custom-house, &c.
 (4.) Markets, fairs, commerce, police, poor-laws, &c. (5.)

Places of worship, religious denominations ; state of literature, manners, and amusements.

The fourth and concluding book undertakes a statistical survey of the neighbourhood of Whitby, to the distance of twenty-five miles, and consists of six sections. (1.) Topographical description. (2.) Antiquities. In this chapter occurs the graphic delineation of a very curious monument, which is thus described :

‘ As this is perhaps the most interesting Saxon monument in existence, the author is happy in presenting it to the public in a form much more correct than any in which it has hitherto appeared. The first and principal part of the inscription, in the two compartments on each side the dial, may be thus expressed in modern characters, writing the contracted words in full; **ORM GAMAL SUNA BOHTE SANCTUS GREGORIUS MINSTER THONNE HIT WES ÆL TOBROCAN AND TOFALAN; AND HE HIT LET MACAN NEWAN FROM GRUNDE CHRISTE AND SANCTUS GREGORIUS, IN EADWARD DAGUM CYNING, IN TOSTI DAGUM EORL:** of which the following is a literal translation; **ORM THE SON OF GAMAL BOUGHT ST. GREGORY'S CHURCH, WHEN IT WAS ALL BROKEN DOWN AND FALLEN; AND HE CAUSED IT TO BE MADE NEW FROM THE GROUND, TO CHRIST AND ST. GREGORY, IN THE DAYS OF EDWARD THE KING, IN THE DAYS OF TOSTI THE EARL.** The second part of the inscription, viz. that which is over the dial, and within its semicircle, reads thus: **THIS IS DÆGES SOL-MERCA, ÆT ILCUM TIDE;** signifying **THIS IS A SUN-DIAL, FOR EVERY HOUR.** The word used to denote a sun-dial, **DÆGES SOL-MERCA**, literally means, *The day's sun-mark.* The last part of the inscription, below the dial, reads **AND HAWARTH ME WROHTE AND BRAND PRESBYTER;** which words signify; **AND HAWARTH MADE ME, AND BRAND THE MINISTER.**

‘ The date of this curious monument may be determined within a few years; for Tosti, who was Earl of Northumberland in the reign of Edward the Confessor, succeeded the famous Earl Siward in that dignity, A.D. 1055, and was expelled for his cruelties, in October, 1065; and as Tosti murdered Gamal, or Gamel, the father of Orm, with others of the Northumbrian nobility, A.D. 1064, and we cannot suppose that Orm, after that barbarous transaction, would affix the hated name of his father's murderer to any monument of his erecting, the church must have been built, and the inscription cut, between the years 1055 and 1064. — We find from Domesday, that Orm, before the conquest, was lord of Kirkdale, then called Chirchebi, or Kirkby; and had ample possessions in that neighbourhood, and in the vale of the Esk. His father Gamel is ranked among the Northumbrian nobles; and Orm himself is said to have married Etheldrith, daughter

daughter of Aldred, Earl of Northumbria. — As Ælfric bought this church, we may conclude that the lordship also came to him by purchase, and since his father, who was then alive, must have assisted in purchasing the property, it was fit that he should be named in the inscription. The church, being then in ruins, must have existed long before, and may have been erected on the conversion of the Danish settlers; or it might be built prior to the Danish irruption, for it was dedicated to St. Gregory, who first sent the Gospel to the Saxons.'

(3.) Mineralogy, botany, zoology. (4.) Agriculture, manufactures, fisheries. (5.) Biography and family-history. (6.) Benevolent institutions and popular customs. An appendix contains documents which could not conveniently be included in the text of the work.

We have only to wish that volumes so remarkably well executed may speedily attain a second edition, and be reprinted in a more magnificent form, to which honour they are well intitled.

ART. IX. *Letters written by the Right Honourable Philip Dormer Stanhope, Earl of Chesterfield, to Arthur Charles Stanhope, Esq. relative to the Education of his Lordship's Godson, Philip, the late Earl.* 12mo. 7s. Boards. Colburn.

So much good sense and knowledge of the world, if not always the purest morality, are scattered through the writings of Lord Chesterfield, as well as an unaffected grace and vivacity, that every new fragment of them will be welcomed with interest and read with instruction. His letters equally deserve notice for the advice which they contain, and the style in which they are drawn up: they habitually inculcate the spirit of a gentleman in the language of a Xenophon. Yet we doubt whether education, which is his favourite topic, was that which he best understood. He was not a complete master of the science of human nature. He fancied that well-directed precepts would suffice to form practical excellence, and he seems to have been ignorant how very much is innate of the temper, disposition, character, and intellect. He even forgets how much is always acquired by unconscious imitation, and appears consequently never to have feared the contiguity of improper models. An inconceivable want of judgment in the choice of tutors characterized every part of the education which he superintended; and a boy of promise, who, if turned adrift in a large school, could hardly have failed to unfold a natural and tractable spirit, was bred up by his valet-masters to capricious self-will and surly indocility.

Dr. Dodd

Dr. Dodd was the worst of them: but not one of them was sufficiently exemplary for the habitual proximity of private tuition.

Lord Chesterfield's intentions are thus disclosed:

' The Outlines of a Plan for the Education of our Boy, but wholly submitted to the Judgment of his Father.

' Our object, I take it for granted, is, to give him, as far as depends upon our care, good morals, good manners, a proper share of classical learning, and a great one of more useful modern knowledge. Upon these principles what follows is entirely founded.

' I propose, therefore, his staying where he now is till Michaelmas, 1764. He will, by that time, be perfectly master of the French language, and also, will have picked up some good scraps of modern history — the most useful of all acquisitions.

' As classical learning, that is, Greek and Latin, is esteemed necessary for a gentleman, and is really useful both for his private amusement and public character, I propose that, at the time above-mentioned, he should be put into the hands, that is, to lodge and board in the house, of some man of sound classical learning, and of a good character.

' This person should be desired to teach him his religious and moral obligations, which are never heard of nor thought of at a public school, where even Cicero's Offices are never read, but where all the lewdness of Horace, Juvenal, and Martial is the whole study, and, as soon as they are able, their practice.

' If this person lives in town, as I could wish he did, the boy might occasionally have some other masters; as, for example, a master to teach him modern history, and perhaps an Italian master.

' At this place I propose his staying till he is between fourteen and fifteen; to speak plain, I mean, till appetites and desires begin to be busy; and when they do, I would transport him, that is, I would send him abroad not to travel, but to reside three or four years at some proper place. I shall be asked, perhaps, what place he could be sent to where appetites and desires will not be gratified? I own, there is no such place, but desert islands. But there is a place, where, by both laws and custom, those desires are restrained within the bounds of decency at least, and where they cannot be shamelessly and flagrantly indulged: — I mean Geneva. In that little, well regulated republic, no indecorum escapes the knowledge or the punishment of the diligent magistrates; and if there are vices, as no doubt there are some, they are so secret, that they neither give scandal nor bad example. There, then, I would have him stay four years, lodged and boarded in the house of some able professor of Modern History, or of the Belles Lettres, who should have full powers delegated to him from his parents. There he may, likewise, go on with advantage in his classical learning. And there he should also learn all his exercises, as dancing, fencing, and riding. The law of nature and nations is likewise taught there better than any where, by very

able professors, whose colleges, that is, lectures, he should assiduously attend. He should likewise learn, and in four years he will have time enough for it, both the Italian and the German languages. I lay the greatest stress imaginable upon history and the modern languages: the former will make him a man of all times—the latter of all countries.

‘When he has stayed his time at Geneva, which should be shorter or longer, according to the use he shall have made of it, I would wish him to go to Paris, to lodge and board, that is, to be what they call *interne*, in the best academy there, for one whole year, to give him the last finishing polish.

‘By this time he will be between nineteen and twenty, when I would have him return to his own country through Flanders and Holland. At this age and in this country, he must and will be his own master, and probably my young lord:—he will make his own fate, whether good or bad, and there is no help for it. But by the whole course of his education, there is just reason to hope, that he will make his fate a good one.’

The thirtieth and thirty-first letters contain good remarks, and applicable exemplifications, as to the use of ridicule in education, and the means of employing it. This is a sort of parlour-discipline, which the school-master is too grave to employ: but for the sake of applying which, it is often worth while to prolong the vacations.

A characteristic sally is the following:

‘What pity it is, that native truth and innocence should ever be warped! But it will in time: and indeed, he could not live long among men, if he always observed it as strictly as he does now. All that I wish for him in that point, hereafter, is, that he should assert nothing but the truth, but that he should not tell the whole truth. A man need not game; but if he will game and play upon the square with sharpers, he must be a sufferer, as I have sufficiently experienced. But a man must live with men, and if he is too open and sincere, he will infallibly be the bubble of most of them. But I shall not teach him this piece of worldly prudence, which will come of itself soon enough.

On the contrary, those who recollect a saucy sneer of the late Dr. Johnson, will be surprized to observe how duly Lord Chesterfield appreciated the value of a dancing-master. Speaking of his niece, he says, (p. 112.) ‘Her dancing is not material: for no man in his senses desires a dancing wife.’ He adds, concerning female education; (p. 151.) ‘If I had a daughter, I would give her as much learning as a boy, for women want more resources than men to keep them out of harm’s way, especially when they are married; and if they have not a great deal to do at home, they will find a great deal to do abroad.’

This

This agreeable little volume forms a desirable supplement to the earlier collection of Lord Chesterfield's Letters: but it may be hoped that a new and collective edition of his speeches and other works, preceded by a proper biography, will shortly be undertaken.

ART. X. *A Treatise on the Science of Ship-Building; with Observations on the British Navy; the extraordinary Decay of the Men of War; the Causes, Effects, and Prevention of the Dry-Rot; also, on the Growth and Management of Timber Trees; the whole, with a View to improve the Construction and Durability of Ships.* By Isaac Blackburn, Ship-builder, Plymouth. 4to. pp. 184. 1l. 5s. Boards. Asperne.

WE cannot help considering the first part of the above title as very improperly applied, since the work contains scarcely a word that immediately appertains to what is commonly considered as implied by the term *science of ship-building*. The author ought rather to have called his volume, "Practical Remarks relative to the Resistance of Floating Bodies, with Observations," &c., for such it in fact is; and those who may become purchasers, from the intimation in the first part of the title-page, will find themselves much disappointed. The accuracy of the above remarks will appear from an abstract of the table of contents, which may be thus stated:— On the resistance of water; the difference in the resistance at different depths; on the velocity of bodies moving in water, and the increase of resistance due to an increase of velocity; on the increase of velocity from an increase of power; difference of effect according to the position of the body, to the form of the bow end, and the form of the stern end; on the resistance of bodies with curved bow ends, and on bodies not wholly immersed.

The above are the contents of the first part. The second treats on what the author calls, in compliance with the general language of seamen, the suction of the stern, but better known to men of science by the denomination of the *minus pressure*; the effects as due to different figures, and particularly to those which resemble the form of ships.— The third and last part of this division of the work treats on the friction of water on bodies, arising from their motion in passing through it, under different circumstances of form and immersion.—Such are the subjects on which the author has bestowed the title of the *Science of Ship-Building*; with what propriety, our readers may now judge for themselves.

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We wish to be understood here as objecting only to the title, the matter itself being far from uninteresting, and not in fact unconnected with the science to which the author refers: we only blame him for not being more explicit in his enumeration.

Let us now offer a few remarks with reference to the execution of the work; and on this point we are sorry that we cannot speak very favourably. The author has, it is true, drawn together the results of various experiments, but he nowhere informs us of the methods which he followed in the performance of them; and we are therefore wholly unable to judge of the degree of confidence that may be placed in his results. Neither has he attempted in any way to deduce from them any general formulæ or rules, by which his deductions may be referred to other cases; so that, if the resistance of a body were required, which differed in any respect, viz. in form, magnitude, or position, we should be, with regard to what is here given, as much at a loss as if no such experiments had ever been performed;—nor can we perceive, throughout the whole of this division of the treatise, the slightest reference to any of the numerous experiments made by preceding writers. Yet Mr. Blackburn surely could not but have heard of the experiments of Bossut, De Buat, Vince, and Eytelwein, and particularly those of the Society for the Encouragement of Naval Architecture. He ought also to have informed himself of Dr. Young's deductions and comparisons of the above experiments; and to have examined his results against the formulæ of the latter author. We cannot undertake to perform this labour ourselves, but we will furnish him with the theorems, and he may still make the comparison.

First formula, $R = \cos. 'a + \frac{1}{18} \tan. a.$

Second do. $R = \frac{2}{18} + \frac{4}{188} \tan. a + 288 \cos. 'a \div 360^\circ + a.$

Third do. $R = \cos. 'a + .0000004217 a^{3.18}.$

Fourth do. $R = \cos. 'a + .4 \text{ vers. } a.$

In these formulæ, R is the resistance, and a the angle of the plane's inclination.

As far as Dr. Young's computation is carried, it would appear that the latter formula, which is by much the most simple, agrees remarkably well with Bossut's experiments; and we should be glad to find its accuracy farther established by its coincidence with the result of those of Mr. Blackburn.

The only striking fact that we have seen, in the part of the work to which we have hitherto confined our observations, is with reference to the atmosphere of water, as it is denominated
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by the author, which bodies moving in fluids carry with them. This, he remarks, is rendered obvious by the spires of grass or sea-weed which attach themselves to the bottoms of vessels, and which are seen to be playing about in all directions, the same as if the vessel were perfectly at rest, although its velocity at the time may be very considerable. Another proof which he gives of this fact is, that the extreme edges of the paddles of steam-vessels frequently move with a velocity which scarcely exceeds that of the vessel itself; that is, if the velocity of the boat be about eight miles in an hour, the velocity of the paddles will also be about the same; whence the author concludes that the water in the vicinity of the vessel must move forwards with it, or otherwise the boat would leave the water with a velocity equal to that with which the paddles meet it, and consequently no force would be found to impel the vessel forwards.

‘The steam-vessels which go from London to Margate, have paddle wheels twenty-seven feet in circumference, and the wheels are moved round by the steam-engine thirty times in a minute. The velocity of the paddles at the circumference of the wheel is therefore, thirteen feet and a half per second, or about eight miles per hour; and it is found, that when the paddles move in the water with this velocity, those vessels move forward with the same velocity, or very nearly; namely, eight miles per hour. If therefore, the water immediately next to the vessel (in which the paddles move) was stationary, and the vessel only had motion, the paddles could not operate with any force against the water, the vessel moving through it with the same velocity as the paddles move against it; and the water must forsake the paddles as fast as the paddles moved to the water. It is evident, therefore, that the water immediately next to the vessel accompanies the vessel in its motion, and that with velocity enough for the paddles to act against this water with sufficient force to impel the vessel forward eight miles per hour, at the time when the paddles themselves move against the water only at the same rate.’

We shall now dismiss this division of Mr. Blackburn's volume, and pass to the second, ‘on the rapid decay of our ships of war,’ which we consider to contain a variety of valuable and important information; although even here, we think, too much is delivered in the way of assertion, too little argument is employed, and too little attention paid to the opinion of other writers. — With respect to the decay of our vessels, the author remarks;

‘It always happens, that the materials which go first infect and destroy those in contact with them. The oaks of North Europe being of quicker decay, will destroy our own native oak, when used in contact therewith, in one-third of the time of its own natural

natural durability, or when used by itself. The oak and fir of Canada is still more perishable in itself, and more destructive to our native oak, than even those of North Europe. By looking to the history of the French marine it will be found, that the use of the timber from Canada, while that country was in their possession, proved destructive to their ships also. The decay of our own navy was certainly never so great before these materials were introduced into the ships.

' But our native oaks have undergone a change; acorns from abroad, particularly from America, have been sown in this country. The landed proprietors find it more advantageous to use them, because of their producing trees of a quicker growth than the oak from the native acorn. The timber from foreign acorns, has become now of a fit size for ship-building, and much of this spurious material has been used under the denomination of English oak.'

The cause of this effect is explained in a subsequent page, and we are inclined to think that there is much sound reason in the argument :

' In different climates, trees are of a different nature. In cold climates, the timber is chiefly resinous, to resist and protect it from intense frosts; witness the whole tribe of pines. Under the torrid zone, where trees grow up, and are hardened by the hottest rays of the sun, they are protected from the scorching heat by the closeness of their texture; such, for instance, are the hard woods of the Brazils, the Havannah, the Floridas, Terra Firma, on the banks of the Amazon and Oroonoko, at Guayaquil, Baldivia, and the East Indies. Other trees in those climates, when of a porous and open grain, are found to be oily and odoriferous; and this, to protect them equally from the heat and putrefaction in hot pestilential situations. Such are the teak, of Batavia, of Bombay, Bengal, and Pegu; the Santalum, also, of Malabar; the cedar of the Japanese, of Cuba, the Floridas, and the Bermudas.

' In climates, where the extremes of heat and cold alternately prevail, resinous trees abound still more with turpentine, than in those parts where the extreme of cold only is felt; whereby they have always a sufficient quantity to protect them from the intense frost, notwithstanding the exudence of much of its turpentine from the heat of the sun. Such is the pitch-pine tree of the southern states of America, the spongy substance of which is saturated with turpentine, not only to guard it against the extremes of heat and cold, but also from the quick transitions of those extremes, occasioned by the sudden shifting of the wind, from the sultry south, to the cold north-west; and in these parts the oak (the live oak) abounds with oil; nature commonly affording peculiar and proper sustenance and protection to trees, correspondent to the climate.

' It must be further observed, that the timber of but few trees will last so long out of, as in its native climate. Timber grown in the northern regions abounding in turpentine, when afterwards exposed to the excessive heat of the torrid zone, the sun drawing

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out the turpentine, it dries up, and perishes, from the loss of its natural preservative; and, indeed, most of the European woods rend and dry up under the torrid zone, being commonly too soft to withstand the excessive heat.

‘ The timber grown in hot countries, which, with care, endures for ages in its natural climes, if brought into the northern regions, and exposed to intense frost, does not last. The fibres of the timber when water-soaked, become expanded, and over-distended with frost; and these ungenial operations being frequently repeated, occasion the timber, at length, to lose that firm adhesive state of its fibres; which, being forced into a porous state, becomes subject to dry-rot. — Intense frost acting upon timber, not of a resinous nature, even of the growth of the northern regions, occasions it to become porous, and of a soft texture; and, consequently, such timber of these latitudes, as is not resinous, is commonly of little durability: hence, why the oaks, the elms, the beech, and the birch, of North Europe, so soon decay. Trees also growing in poor soils, which obtain their nourishment, and draw their sap and life rather from the air and water, than from the earth, are commonly shaky, being shook with the frost and wind. Those trees of the temperate zone, which grow where the frosts are not so intense, are generally of a more compact texture, and of greater durability: such is our British oak. And those which grow where there are no frosts, and under the hottest rays of the sun, are of the closest and hardest texture, and of longest durability in their own native climate.’

It appears from the above extract, that the author is decisive in the preference which he gives to the wood of hot countries; and he afterward recommends in particular the teak of the East Indies; the adoption of which for ship-timber, he observes, would be the means of preserving for any future emergency the valuable oak of our native soil. That this preservation is amply required will be evident from the statement, that not enough of oak is now left in the royal forests to supply us with timber for one ship of seventy-four guns per annum; and that the country does not possess at present above one-fourth of the number of oaks that it contained some years ago. These, if they may be considered as facts, and we see no reason to doubt their accuracy, certainly speak strongly in favour of the proposed adoption of the teak-wood; although it might be attended with some extra-expence. The author enters on the computation of this extra-expenditure; and he shews that, by converting the timber before it is brought from India, the cost would not be so great as we might be led to imagine.

‘ Supposing the price of teak in India to be 4l. per load in the rough state, add 10s. per load for the labour of converting the timber; and suppose two loads in the rough to produce one in the converted

verted state, and that 14l. per load in its converted state be the freight to England, the expense delivered into his Majesty's yards, in a converted state, would be little more than 22l. 10s. per load. Comparing this with the cost and expense of English oak-timber, when reduced to its converted state, the teak will be found to cost not a great deal more than the English oak. It may be made evident, that a ship can be built in England of teak and English-oak timber together, at a very little more expense than one built in India : taking into the account of the latter, the expenses to Government in sending out stores, and in transporting the ship to this country. The most advantageous disposition of the teak-timber, and of English oak-timber, in the construction of a ship, is, for the timbers to be of teak-wood, and the planks and thick-stuff to be of English oak. It is much more expensive to take out decayed timbers, and replace them with new ones, than to take off decayed plank and thick-stuff, and replace the same with new ; consequently the most durable materials should be appropriated to the timbers.

According to the above plan, the teak would be employed only for furnishing the main timbers, while the English oak would be used for the planking : but, if we are correctly informed, specimens of several trees have lately been landed in our dock-yards, from an almost inexhaustible forest on the coast of Africa, about 200 miles from the Cape of Good Hope, which might be well employed for the latter purpose. This timber, known under the denomination of *stink-wood*, is of a specific gravity rather less than that of oak, and apparently almost as well calculated to resist decay as teak itself ; while it is much better suited for many purposes in ship-building, in consequence of its tough and elastic nature : an undeniable proof of which is that a piece of 20 feet long, 15 inches deep, and 13 inches broad, has been bent to a two feet four inch curve by Hookey's machine, without any apparent injury to its fibres. The expense in the country is, we believe, only that of felling, or very little more ; and, if converted into planks before it left the forest, it might be delivered into any of his Majesty's yards at not more than 5l. 10s. per load in planks, and therefore at a much lower rate than our own oaks. The opinions of our dock-yard officers have, we understand, been taken on the propriety of adopting the use of this timber, some of which we have seen : but, as it generally happens in such cases, the answers returned have been at variance with each other. Still, however, we should hope that some fair trial will be given to it ; which, even if it failed, would be attended with little or no extra expense. We have seen a specimen of this wood ; and, as far as we are able to judge, it possesses all the requisite qualities for becoming an useful material in our building establishments.

Mr. Blackburn also examines the merits of some of our native woods, and observes :

‘ The natural quality of our pines (the spruce, the larch, and the Scotch fir, in particular,) are quite equal to the pines from our American colonies ; and with proper care in the raising, pruning, seasoning, and felling, would be found to answer in ship-building equally as well as the fir-timber and deals imported from North Europe. For near a century past we have been the dupes of our northern neighbours, who by care and proper management in rearing and felling their trees, have brought their fir-timber and deals into the best condition for use ; and we have been using these materials, while our own spruce, larch, and Scotch fir, though naturally equal to them in quality, have been out of repute ; inso-much, that an universal prejudice has been raised against them ; and thus, have our neighbours been enriched at the expence of our negligence and mismanagement. Attention is required to these trees ; for upon that alone depends their value and condition.’

We are glad to see the undue prejudices giving way, which have long existed against the fir and larch of Scotland. It has been shewn by a late writer * on this subject, from actual experiments on the strength of different woods, that the fir-timber of the forest of Mar is at least equal to that of the best Riga ; and that it is in all respects as well adapted to the purposes of ship-building. The following extract from the last-mentioned author is so much to our present purpose, that we make no apology for introducing it. Speaking of the trees from which his specimens were cut, he says ;

“ Each of these trees was about 28 inches in diameter at the butt, and contained 50 feet in length of serviceable timber ; the grain remarkably clean, free from knots, and full of turpentine ; and from the results in the following table, it appears that the strength exceeds that of any other fir, that was submitted to experiment ; although the second specimen of Riga was selected from a tree supposed to be of superior quality, on purpose to form the comparison.

“ The forest of Mar, from which these timbers were brought, the property of the Earl of Fife, is 20 miles in length and in some places 20 miles in breadth, and contains upwards of 60,000 trees of the above description, besides an immense number of less dimensions, fit for building and various other purposes. The management of this extensive forest appears to have been formerly much neglected ; but great care is now taken to promote the growth of many thousands of young timbers, which will follow in succession those already fit for the axe.”

It must be worse than madness to expend our property on the purchase of foreign fir, when we have such resources of our own at command.

* Barlow on the Strength of T

&c.

We dare not trust ourselves with examining the other part of Mr. Blackburn's remarks, relative to the practical business of the shipwright, the propriety of this or that mode of fastening, &c. as it would lead us far beyond our assigned limits. We shall therefore content ourselves with remarking that much good sense, and the best possible motives, seem to have dictated the author's several observations; and we are only sorry to find them given very often in a manner somewhat irregular, frequently repeated, and always without the least reference to the opinions of other writers.

ART. XI. *The Intellectual Patrimony, or a Father's Instructions.*
By James Gilchrist. 8vo. pp. 168. 6s. Boards. Hunter.

IN our lxxxivth volume, p. 304., we noticed a work of this writer on *Philosophic Etymology*. His talent is rapid and piercing, his dialectic resource is abundant, his opinion is courageous and original, and his eloquence is imaginative and dazzling. Though he changes his topic too frequently to exhaust any individual stream of inquiry, yet he may always be read with interest and instruction, when not with confidence and satisfaction; and, if he has rather the brilliancy of incrustation than of solidity, yet some precious materials have been employed in the fashion of his book.

This somewhat singular title veils a treatise on literary education, couched in the form of letters or addresses from a father to a child; or rather of dissertations drawn up for a son's eventual use, but above the actual years of the person to whom they are inscribed. The object, like that of Mr. Esor's *Independent Man*, is to make one of those indocile doctors, or literary demagogues, known by the name of philosophers, who are to rebuild in modern forms the massy, mouldering, Gothic, institutions of the feudal ages, and to bestow on Europe rational creeds and representative governments.

The first favourite proposition of the author is that *mental liberty and independence are necessary to mental excellence*. This is defended in various ways by remarks on credulity, diffidence, cowardice, imitation, systematic education, reading, *rotting* (a word of Mr. Gilchrist's invention) and repeating, indolence, and the other preventives of mental exertion. However ingenious the argumentation, and however gladly we should be convinced of the necessary connection between intellect and independence, between talent and virtue, we are fearful that the history of human nature supplies but too

many instances of admirable mental faculties, having been accompanied with a plastic and interested docility to the will of "the powers that be." Lord Bacon manifested perhaps the strongest mind which England has produced; yet he cannot be entirely acquitted of servile flattery to his prince, or of a corrupt administration of the laws. Indeed, experience rather favours the opposite suspicion, that second-rate talents, for the very reason that they take but a partial one-side view of things, are more remarkable for fidelity of zeal and constancy of decision.

Another conspicuous proposition in this work is, that *mental exertion is necessary to mental excellence*. This is a mere truism. Who can run if he does not stir?—Much is said against indolence, as if indolence were a voluntary fault. Surely it rather resembles that occasional flaccidity of bodily fibre which succeeds to exertion, and announces weariness; it is an indirect debility of mind, analogous to the temporary impotence to which every faculty is subject after extreme effort. Now, as some bodies are less elastic and robust than others, and sooner collapse with fatigue; so some minds, from native tendency, sooner sink into indolence than others, and are compelled longer to await the returning power of application. Fits of indolence are essential to the recovery of exhausted energy, and will commonly be found requisite in proportion to the duration and intensity of the previous exertion. Mechanical stimulants applied to the body, such as wine, will remove for a time the commencing indolence of the mind: but the remedy is of dangerous use, and only advisable for orators, or other persons whose hour of intellectual activity is not left to their own choice. Excessive application during youth is commonly succeeded by a long maturity of indolence.—The concluding chapter of this section is well adapted to display the peculiar hue of the author's sentiments, and is intitled 'Despair of Success preventive of Exertion:'

'A principle of non-exertion in the mind of many persons is the opinion that it is impossible at this late hour of time—in this old age of the world—to accomplish any great purpose of invention or discovery; as if intellect were become effete or dotard—as if all the raw materials of reason were worked up—every region of intellect cleared, and in the highest state of cultivation—as if all the patents for invention were already taken out—as if, in short, those who went before had left nothing for us who came after, but a few gleanings which they thought not worth their attention. This being a general opinion, is it surprising that the whole field of literature is sprinkled over with poor gleaners?

‘ The origin of the above opinion is classical idolatry. The ancient classics have long been held up as models of supreme perfection, which it would be thought presumptuous impiety to attempt to equal; and the highest aim of learned writers is to imitate, not surpass, the great Plato and the great Cicero.

‘ This literary superstition is now happily on the decline; and I venture to predict, that within the space of a century the classical models will be as much on mere sufferance as the writings of Pope and Addison; and that the pedant will be as much ashamed to display his classic fripperies in sensible company, as to have it known that he wears a coat taken from an old clothes-stall.

‘ That you may not be deterred from great purposes and attempts by any superstitious faith in ancient learning and past invention, I refer you to the works of Bacon — particularly his *Critique of the more eminent Philosophers* — the first part of the *Novum Organon*, and the whole of the *Advancement of Learning*. The truth is, that when a few authors are excepted, there is hardly any thing in the largest library of the world deserving the name of thinking. Let not your heart fail you at the sight of this great Sahara. The world of intellect is all before you, where to choose your subject, and utility your guide. Only a few shores of the great continent of reason have been discovered; — or rather reason is yet childishly weak and timid, creeping along the coast of truth within sight of precedent and authority, and never boldly launching out into the great ocean of discovery, steering its course by the polar star of logical certainty; but wandering in the mists of verbal ambiguity, or groping in the dark of scholastic jargon. If you would rectify reason and explode absurdity — if you would transform the wilderness of literature into a fruitful field — if you would demolish Babel-buildings and intellectual labyrinths, — in short, whether you would put down error or raise up truth, there is ample employment for your whole life, if as long as that of Methuselah. The chaotic mass of learning contained in a large library is merely pre-existent matter out of which your omnipotent resolution may create a noble system of science, simple and harmonious, and useful as the workmanship of heaven around you. Standing on the vantage-ground of truth, as discovered by Bacon and the other true philosophers, how far may you not see — how much may you not accomplish!

‘ The opinion that much time and apparatus are necessary to great mental operations, is a great obstacle to intellectual exertion. But what is the fact? Did Bacon spend his whole life in literary leisure? He impoverished himself, indeed, to enrich his intellectual apparatus; and perhaps you will never be able to expend a hundredth part of the sum expended by him on books, instruments, experiments, &c.: but I fully believe that he would have made every important addition to knowledge contained in his matchless writings if he had never expended a hundred pounds on books and instruments.

‘ Helps can do little without intellectual energy ; — intellectual energy can do much without helps : it is a kind of omnipotent power, which can work without ordinary means ; it can create both *means* and *ends*, as it were, out of nothing. Perhaps a rich storehouse of advantages is in every case more detrimental than beneficial to the mind, for it is impossible to have auxiliaries without relying on them ; and in proportion as the mind trusts to external aid, its own internal power is diminished. So far as my observation has extended, it may be laid down as a general maxim, that a rich study makes a poor student ; just as none are such intellectual paupers as the hereditary possessors of immense wealth.’

We do not stay to contest the disputable points in this quotation. A third section, superior, we think, to the first two, treats of the ‘ amusements obstructive of intellectual excellence.’ Among these is justly ranked a complacency in petty excellences. As Chesterfield advises his gentleman in all companies to strike at the highest, so the man of letters should always aim at conversing with superior writers ; and rather with the great writers of foreign countries than of his own. In every book, so much must consist of transplanted ideas and recollected terms, that it is of importance to collect these common-places from recondite and out-of-the-way authors : the strangeness of the borrowed matter will thus give it the appearance of novelty and originality. Even our national classics are become too familiar for the intimacy of the polished ; and to quote them is trivial pedantry, when not accomplished with striking felicity.

Against sensual indulgence a long chapter occurs at p. 69. ; and the advice given is moral and christian. Against amusements, also, many splendid arguments are arrayed in a manner worthy of a puritanic pulpit : yet the shunner of amusement is seldom so industrious as he who varies his occupations, and is much more liable to hypochondriac annoyance. As if no extreme of austerity and asceticism could satisfy this teacher of self-denial, a Philippic, or rather a Tertullianade, against theatricals is introduced, which occupies fifteen pages. The arguments surely are flimsy. It is objected to the theatric art, that it is ‘ nothing whatever but imitation, which is one of the lowest occupations, intellectually considered, of which man is capable.’ Are not all genius and all intellect, in as great a degree, imitation also ? No person, from native force, ever translated his thoughts into language beautifully and clearly at first. It is by selecting the brilliant and precise phrases of others, that the arts of expression slowly accumulate. The first truly strong mind
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which attempted excellence in philosophy, that of Aristotle, could not reason with precision for want of models of the appropriate diction: yet his study of logic was profound; and he failed because he had no one to imitate. Sextus Empiricus, with inferior intellect, reasoned more closely than Aristotle, because he had predecessors. So Cicero reasoned more closely than Plato, not from superiority of faculty, but from range of study. The poetic art is in like manner greatly indebted to imitation. We cannot trace the plagiarisms of Homer: but Virgil, Ariosto, Tasso, Milton, and Wieland, abound with transplanted passages, and incidental imitations of other poets. The boy who learns to read in the Atlantis of Bacon, or in the Human Nature of Hobbes, is more likely to form a habit of thinking with precision, than if he were early conversant with such writers as Shakspeare or Locke. His young mind would be accustomed to *imitate* the distinct ideas of his companions in the one case, and the vague ideas of his companions in the other. Now the theatre is, with respect to the moral art, what classical writers are in other departments of study; a storehouse of models which the audience assembles critically to appreciate. The historian has one theory of moral perfection, and the preacher another; but at the theatre the *instinctive* sympathies of human nature break loose, and praise or blame is expressed with the honest heart and voice of the man of nature. There alone truly it may be said, "*Vox populi, vox Dei.*" Love of glory is a common propensity, but the art of attaining it is rarely acquired without some habit of frequenting the theatre. It is there that the sentiments and actions, at which a whole public simultaneously exults, are seen to produce a gush of tears, or a thunder of applause; it is there that the selfish feelings learn their insignificance, and the generous their beauty. Public spirit has every where been chiefly indebted to the theatre. According to the life of Apollonius of Tyana, Domitian was hurled from his throne by the plaudits lavished on allusive lines before successive audiences: the French Revolution, also, was wonderfully assisted by the liberal spirit of the Parisian drama;—and to what is Germany about to owe her emancipation but to the heroic delineations of Schiller, whose Marquis Posa, and whose Wilhelm Tell, have been the models of her disinterested patriots.

The fourth and concluding section treats of the Means of Intellectual Improvement. An excellent chapter is devoted to reading. No where does the author display his criticism to more advantage; and certainly he possesses that best internal

gauge of the intellect of others, that surest noometer, a strong mind of his own. The length alone of the diatribe prevents us from copying it here. — Another very good chapter aims at shewing that the love of truth is necessary to a habit of sound reflection; and in the section on conversation we have much valuable matter. On the whole, if some love of paradox, and various prejudices of education, can be traced in the opinions of this writer, still we deem them well worthy of public attention for their stimulating character: they are conceived with force, and expressed with vivacity: but, like those of Rousseau, they have a romantic tinge not in unison with practical convenience.

ART. XII. *An Attempt to establish Physiognomy upon scientific Principles.* Originally delivered in a Series of Lectures. By John Cross, M. D. 8vo. pp. 270. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WE have always considered physiognomy as a very interesting science, and have often wished to see it fairly taken up and elucidated in a philosophical manner. That this has never yet been the case we feel no hesitation in asserting; for, although we may derive considerable amusement and some information from the rhapsodies of Lavater, no person can regard him as intitled to the character of a philosopher. He had apparently a quick perception, which enabled him often to form a correct opinion respecting character by the lineaments of the face: but, as he ~~was~~ directed entirely by feeling, his judgment was not unfrequently whimsical and capricious, and sometimes manifestly erroneous. Dr. Cross proceeds on a more correct plan; examining the structure of those parts of the body which are principally concerned in the science of physiognomy, inquiring into their uses, investigating the comparative anatomy of the same organs in different classes of animals, and finally, from these data, endeavouring to deduce the principles of his art. We are disposed to admit the justness and propriety of every one of these preliminary steps: but we doubt whether there are not other objects, which ought likewise to be held in view for the complete solution of the problem; and even whether there be not some points, still more important than any to which the author has alluded. We shall not, however, enter into a dissertation on physiognomy, but shall proceed to give our readers an account of the performance which now lies before us.

Nearly

Nearly half of the volume is occupied with what may be considered as preliminary if not extraneous matter; in which we have a general view, first of the physiology, and, secondly, of the pathology of the animal frame. No doubt, both these departments of science are nearly connected with physiognomy: but so is anatomy, and so are metaphysics; yet, were we to go through all these branches of knowledge, we should convert a treatise on physiognomy into an Encyclopædia. Even waiving this kind of general objection, others of a more specific nature exist, and which belong more particularly to the mode of the execution. With respect both to matter and manner, we remark a great want of accuracy; the author seems to have taken up his ideas as they poured in upon him; and to have thrown them out for the use of the reader, without examining what relation they bore to the general objects of his work, or whether they were essential to its subject. Moreover, he is full of metaphors, allusions, and analogies; and these are so thickly scattered as frequently to obscure the argument, and to make it difficult to determine what are its general scope and tendency: while we are often at a loss to decide whether any particular position is to be taken in its literal or its figurative acceptation. We shall illustrate our meaning by a few quotations. On the subject of Respiration, we have the following remarks:

‘As respiration is the source of animal energy, and as all healthy chyle, from whatever food derived, is alike to the lungs, so the quantity of food expended in respiration must mark the degree of animal energy. The more fuel, within limits, you throw upon the fire, the greater heat and light shall be produced, but if you throw in too much fuel, you choke up and may even extinguish the fire; so if you throw more food into the stomach than can be digested, and expended upon respiration, or hoarded up in reservation, you choke up, and may even extinguish, the vital functions. Nature endeavours to make digestion supply the requisite carbon to respiration, though not with a puny, scrupulous accuracy, that admits of no latitude. As long as the signals of hunger, and of satiety, are regularly obeyed, so long shall the digestive organ be free of any participation in the admission of disease; but no sooner are these signals disregarded — no sooner are the watch-posts forsaken, than the whole territory lies open to invasion.’

The hair is ranged among the physiognomical organs in the ensuing paragraph:

‘A gradation of hair might be made out with regard to texture. Suffice it to contrast the dorsal bristles of the hyena, or of the wild boar, or even the coarse crisp hair on the head of a negro, with the fine flowing silken hair of a European. The finer the texture of the hair, the more feeble is the constitution; but, at the same

same time, the more delicate is that part of the character to which the hair points. The colour of the hair is so expressive of the constitution, as to be considered a pretty correct index of the temperament. The radical strength of man, other things being equal, is proportional to the darkness of the hair. That kind of disease which, having no outlet, is pent up within the body so as to affect its general functions, always more or less blanches the hair. Those individuals that occur here and there, in all the four quarters of the world, with skin and hair of a pure whiteness, and from that circumstance receive the name of Albinos, are always weakly and unhealthy. Indeed, for illustration, we need not go farther than ourselves and those around us. As we advance from weakly infancy, through stronger boy-hood, up to robust manhood, the hair becomes darker and darker. As we descend the other side of the hill of life, the hair again becomes whiter and whiter, and the body feebler and feebler, until we reach the bottom of the hill, bending and tottering with our hoary heads on the brink of the grave.'

These we conceive to be fair, perhaps favourable, specimens of Dr. Cross's manner; and they will, we apprehend, justify our criticisms, while at the same time they will probably appear to afford proofs of ability and genius.

The organs to which the author particularly directs our attention, as the proper indicators of the science which he professes to illustrate, are the neck, the mouth, the nose, the ears, and the eyes. The same general character belongs to this as to the former part, but, as the topics are more closely connected with the subject, they are necessarily free from some of the objections which applied to the introductory sections. Still, however, we find the same want of simplicity, both as to style and sentiments, the same obtrusion of metaphorical language, and the same substitution of vague analogical reasoning for a correct deduction of authenticated facts. Yet we meet with many things to admire, and some parts to applaud as not only ingenious but as probably just. Of this description we should be disposed to regard several of the author's observations on the shape of the mouth, as composed of the jaws, teeth, and lips; in which he traces up the different forms of these parts through the several descriptions of animals, shews how they are respectively connected with their habits and faculties, and applies these observations to the physiognomy of the human subject. At least to a certain extent, we think that the mode of reasoning is correct; yet it requires to be pursued with caution, and is liable to degenerate into extravagance. Of this kind we conceive is the ensuing remark:

‘The more the human teeth, in point of size, of shape, and of arrangement, approach to those of carnivorous animals, the more violent and rapacious is the animal character. On the contrary the more the human teeth, in size, shape, and regularity, approach to those of granivorous animals, the more placid is the animal character.’

The observations on the expression conveyed by the lips, as connected with their offices and uses, we believe to be more correct :

‘From the angles of the mouth at either side there is a gradual increase in physiognomical importance, correspondent with the gradual increase in animal importance; for the middle of the lip not only covers the most important teeth, but has also the most active share in feeling, in eating, and in speaking. That part of the upper lip which covers the front teeth of the upper or predaceous jaw is furnished with muscular apparatus for elevation and depression. Elevation renders bare the predaceous seizing teeth; depression covers them up. The corresponding part of the under lip, covering the front teeth of the lower jaw, is also furnished with muscular apparatus for depression and elevation — for rendering these seizing teeth bare, and for covering them up. Depression of the middle part of the upper lip is a descent of the social part of the animal character over the rapacious, as if for the purpose of addressing instead of biting — indicates a sheathing of the sword, for the sake of a parley. The more the upper lip descends over the upper fore teeth, the more condescending is the social part of the animal character. A peak descending from the middle of the upper lip bespeaks animal sympathy. On the contrary, elevation of that part of the upper lip which covers the front teeth is just a preparation to bite. When the dog uncovers his upper teeth, we at once say that he snarls. When man uncovers his upper fore teeth, he either snarls or sneers; for man has the advantage of the dog, in being a laughing as well as a biting animal. Thus we find that the upper lip, like the upper jaw, has respect to objects around. On stepping down to the lower lip, we find that it has, like the jaw to which it belongs, respect to self; for ascent of the middle part of the lower lip indicates animal pride, while descent indicates animal humility.’

We shall offer one other specimen of Dr. Cross's method of reasoning; which is of a more ambiguous character, but may serve to illustrate the peculiar traits on which we have already remarked :

‘As a broad olfactory structure, from being calculated for strong sensation, indicated force of predaceous energy, so a broad external nose, from admitting a large stream of effluvia, indicates a vigorous application of this predaceous energy; and the higher up the expansion, the more inbred is this animal boldness; great breadth of the upper part of the nose is indeed a characteristic

of the *feræ*. The reason that the upper part of the nose is more radical than the lower, is principally because the upper part is constituted of bone, the lower merely of cartilage. Although this division belongs more to the anatomist than to the physiognomist, yet as the comparative quantity of bone and cartilage may be computed during life; and as the physiognomist may have frequent occasion to contemplate the sepulchral ruins of former energy, tossed up from their dark abode, or to walk through the museum, amongst the more sightly, but yet solemn display of what was once energy, as well as passion, and feeling, and intellect, so this division into bone and cartilage—into solidity and softness—is highly worthy of attention. The more the nose is constituted of bone, the more is the direction of energy fixed, determined, constitutional; whereas the more the nose is constituted of cartilage, the more does the direction of energy depend on individual exertions. The cartilaginous part of the nose seems to be to the osseous, what the lips are to the jaws. The more soft and pliant the cartilaginous part of the nose, the more loose and unsteady is the direction of predaceous energy. On the contrary, the more firm and elastic the cartilaginous part of the nose, the more steady and determined is the current of predaceous energy. A nose composed of firm elastic cartilage recovers itself from every pressure, however frequently repeated, and maintains a straight attitude. A good nose ought to have a firm, and a regular formation to the very termination of the apertures, which indeed are by far the most expressive part of the nose. The wings of the nose are furnished with muscles of compression, and of expansion. Compression indicates a prudential restraining of the predaceous energy; expansion indicates loose given to the predaceous energy, and indeed is produced by the same muscles, which throw the upper lip into snarling.'

Altogether, we can recommend this volume to such of our readers as are likely to be interested in the topic on which it treats. If they may meet with a great number of sentiments in which they cannot coincide, they will likewise find many interesting remarks, which, if not of a nature to produce irresistible conviction, may at least be regarded as extremely plausible; while a degree of spirit and vivacity is thrown over the whole performance, which carries us though even those parts that we may be the least disposed to approve as correct.

ART. XIII. *Sermons and Lectures*, by Alexander Brunton, D.D., one of the Ministers of the Tron Church, and Professor of Oriental Languages in the University of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 460. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE eloquence of the pulpit is said to be now at a very low ebb; and certainly, if it be fair to judge of this opinion from the specimens which in these days issue from

the remark appears not far from the truth. Among the numerous productions of this nature which have at various times been submitted to our notice, we should have some difficulty in pointing out any that peculiarly deserve, we will not say perusal, but a distinguished share of public approbation; or which could with safety be held up to the inexperienced student as models of a pure and uncorrupted style. Undoubtedly we except from this censure the sermons of Paley; which, for solidity of judgment, plain, unaffected good sense, temperance and charitableness in religious discussions, and real genuine eloquence, — the eloquence of feeling and of the heart, — can never be too highly appreciated; we would have them read again and again by persons of every description: they should be used as grammars and dictionaries by divines and laymen; and in this way the evil which we lament might stand some chance of being remedied. Before the days of Paley, however, long and desolate was the interregnum of dullness; and since his time, how much worse than dullness and desolation have been the unworthy efforts of the theologic pen!

Our neighbours in the North, who by some persons are considered as surpassing us in this species of composition, we cannot deem intitled to an entire exemption, on this occasion, from their due share of the general censure. Whatever praise may in some respects be attributable to the recent sermons of Scotch divines, they betray, generally speaking, a want of solidity and research, a barrenness of information, and an absence of original matter, which must prevent them from being considered as standard specimens of the art. They will be read once, and approved; then quietly and contentedly laid aside. The pages of Alison, for instance, are in many parts replete with merit: the sentiments are just, — the language is rich, copious, and energetic, — and the style is altogether well adapted to please and to persuade: — but too great a sacrifice is made to artificial elegance and unnecessary ornament; and the dignity and simplicity of preaching are compromised for the sake of a metaphor, a trope, or a well-rounded period, which, like the flowers of nature, look for a time gay and brilliant, but then droop, decay, and are forgotten. The same remarks, though perhaps in a somewhat less degree, are applicable to the style and language of Morehead; whose sermons would be better intitled to our approbation, and more likely to outlive the days of their early youth, if the information which they afford were less scanty, if the truths which they unfold were more plainly set forth, and if greater attention had been paid to that solidity of reasoning
which

which convinces the understanding, and that practical instruction which improves the heart, than to the harmony of tuneful periods, which only captivate the fancy for a moment: if, in short, his style had been modelled on the substantial basis of our elder divines, and had savoured less of the effeminate prettiness of the modern popular preacher.

The volume before us bears in many of its features a resemblance to those which have preceded it in its journey southwards, without being perfectly similar to any of them. It has something of the spirit of Blair, though not his happy combination of accuracy and elegance: it is, generally speaking, more solid than Alison, and occasionally as brilliant; and it displays much of the feeling, but does not attain all the eloquence, of Morehead. Of this, however, our readers will perhaps be better able to judge, when we have proceeded farther in our analysis of the work. It contains fifteen sermons and four lectures, the latter of which are thrown in promiscuously and somewhat oddly among their companions, and seem to differ from them in name rather than in nature. The subjects of the former are miscellaneous, and are thus stated:

‘ On the Christian Ministry. — The Gospel a Source of habitual Joy. — On the Divinity of the Mediator. — On Religious Conversation. — Views of the Grave. — On the Happiness of Heaven. — The Gospel Terms of Acceptance. — On the Intemperate Love of Amusement. — On the Education of the Children of the Poor. — On Communion with God. — Blessings changed into a Curse. — On the Holy Angels. — On the Fallen Angels. — On the Lord's Supper. — On Christian Courage. — The Lectures are, On the Characters of Joseph and his Brethren. — On the First Reception of the Gospel. — The Choice of the Apostles. — On the Miracle performed at Nain.’

The first of these discourses, as we are informed by a note subjoined, was the *concio inauguralis*, which Dr. Brunton delivered when he entered on the duties of a minister in the Tron Church in Edinburgh, and is perhaps altogether one of the best sermons, or at least the most equally good, in the collection. If not so brilliant or so striking as some of the rest, it is the most free from error, and from the examples, which elsewhere occur, of an impure and imperfect taste. We make the subsequent extract rather for the sake of the rationality and good sense which it contains, than as a specimen of the powers or genius of the author. Speaking of the fittest modes of duly executing the important task of public religious instruction, Dr. Brunton very properly observes:

• In

' In selecting the topics on which his instructions are to turn, it becomes the Christian teacher to inquire, — not, assuredly, what will be most agreeable to himself, — what he can most easily accomplish, — or what will display more successfully any endowments in which he may imagine himself to excel. It becomes him to inquire, not even what will be most agreeable to his people; or what, by avoiding all uneasy irritation, is likely to secure for him their partiality and praise. It becomes him to inquire, how he can most effectually "preach Christ Jesus the Lord."

' And, blessed be God! a model is before us, which, on a point so momentous, may preserve us from error. The instructions which Jesus Christ himself delivered are recorded, by the Spirit of God, for our example. In these we shall infallibly find the themes which redound the most to the glory of our Master, by contributing to the everlasting welfare of his people.

' Now, the public instructions of Jesus Christ exhibit, in colours most impressive and beautiful, the perfections of his heavenly Father, — those endearing attributes especially of love and mercy, which it is the peculiar office of the Gospel to proclaim. They remind us often of the operations of Divine Providence, and of that inspection which the Creator exerciseth continually over the creatures of His hand. Jesus calleth us by precept, as well as by example, to those offices of devotion which the Father of our bodies, and Father of our spirits, requires us, for our own advantage, to perform. Jesus speaks to us of the hope of immortality, that hope which hath vanquished the fear of death; extending our prospects to a world, where, all the imperfections which now surround us ceasing, happiness and purity reign for ever more.

' Jesus speaks to us of the great scheme of salvation, through which this glorious destiny is secured to the sons of men; — of those sufferings which love to man made him willingly undergo; — of that death by which he "bare our sins, in his own body, on the tree;" — of that resurrection from the grave to which he himself appealed as the pledge that his doctrine was true; — of that exaltation to which he hath now returned, where he sitteth "on the right hand of Power," and where "all judgment is committed to him." He establishes our faith and exalts our hope by assuring us, that, where he sitteth "on the right hand of Power," he condescendeth still to be our intercessor and advocate; that, amidst the "judgment committed to him," he remembers the infirmity which he humbled himself to share.

' While Jesus sets before us the prospect of the heavenly inheritance, he is not unmindful of the means which must train us for its enjoyment. While he proclaims the glad tidings of reconciliation and forgiveness, he exhibits in his law the standard of duty. In his example its transcript is brightly displayed. In the path of unfeigned devotion, — of vital holiness, — of active charity, — he calls us to walk, as friends and followers of him.

' If these were the themes on which our Master himself most frequently dwelt; if these were the themes which he considered as most essential to the spiritual welfare of his hearers, — these are also

also the themes which will be most frequently chosen by the Christian teacher, if his desire sincerely be to "preach not himself, but Christ Jesus the Lord."

After having sufficiently dwelt on the proper characters of the language of the pulpit, which are stated to be, first, *simplicity*; secondly, a *practical tendency*; and, thirdly, *impartiality*, the author proceeds:

' In order to discharge this duty aright, it is obvious that the teacher in the Christian church requires a higher authority than of himself he possesses. That *authority* he finds in the words of the text, preaching not himself, but Christ Jesus the Lord.

' The teacher feels his own infirmity; he feels that he himself is ignorant and erring, little entitled to instruct those who have greater experience and greater wisdom than his to guide them. But his commission is from on high. The words which he speaks are the words of the living God. In the name of the Master whom he preacheth, and in that name alone, he offers to instruct the ignorant, and to build up the pious in their most holy faith. "As ambassadors of God," the teachers of the Christian church offer to their people a hope of usefulness which no endowments of their own could promise. The strength of God is perfected in men's infirmity. For, through what the worldly wise and the spiritually proud may call the "foolishness of preaching," it is the pleasure of our great Lord, that religious truth should be brought to remembrance, and the obligations of religious duty quickened; that not only the ignorant should learn knowledge, but that the purest mind should be stirred up to useful recollection. God blesseth the ordinance of his own appointment; and, even while the "treasure is in earthen vessels, the excellency of the power" is seen to be of Him.

' The planet, dark in itself and rayless, acquires, from the orb that cheers the day, a splendour not its own. As it moves on in its appointed path, its beams direct the mariner amid the trackless deep; its mild glory draws the wandering eye to heaven. And shall not He, from whom the sun itself receives its splendour; shall not He "who dwelleth in the light," and "in whom is no darkness;" — shall not He bestow on the meanest instrument which is employed in his service some portion of that light which belongs to himself alone?

' The weakness of the Christian teacher is not confined to the understanding. It extends also to the heart. He is a man of like passions with those whom he instructs, — surrounded with the same temptations, — loaded with similar guilt. And how should he whom his own conscience remindeth of iniquity, — how should he who feels sin still lurking within him, — how should he reprove the offending? How should he recall the wanderer? How should he encourage and animate the pure in heart?

' He preacheth not himself, but "Christ Jesus the Lord." The doom which he proclaims against transgression is not a threat.

threatening of his, but of the living God, with whom dwell infinite wisdom and power almighty. The precepts which he delivers are not the dictates of his own experience, but parts of a pure and spotless law, flowing from the source of all perfection, — the only fountain of light and life. The example which he sets before his hearers is not that of his own conduct — defective even in principle, — and in practice more defective still. It is the example of one who was “holy, harmless, undefiled, and separated from sinners” — of one who did the “work which was given him to do” — of one who, “for our sakes, fulfilled all righteousness.” If the Christian teacher warns his flock to be holy, it is that they may be “holy as the Master who hath called them is holy.” If he warns them to be perfect, it is that they may be “perfect even as their Father which is in heaven is perfect.”

The discourse, which we consider as the least creditable to the author's judgment, treats on the subject of ‘religious conversation;’ in which he takes some pains to enforce, as a duty, the importance of frequently mixing the great truths and consolations of religion with the other topics of daily and familiar converse. The advantages to be derived from such a habit, we confess, appear to us to be at least problematical; and indeed the custom, unless invariably accompanied with a due proportion of strong sense and sound judgment, (qualities allotted only to the favoured few,) seems likely to prove utterly destructive of the end which we suppose is sought to be attained by it. Those who talk the most about a thing, we are inclined to think, practise it, in general, the least. “*Grand parleur, grand fou,*” is a proverb as true as it is old. “On the minds of others,” it is said, “religious conversation may have a good effect. It is natural to talk of what is uppermost in the mind, and it is useful to others to shew them the sense, which you entertain yourself of the certainty of the truths, and the delightfulness of the hopes of religion.” To this we reply that, in the first place, its being *natural* does not prove it to be a *duty*; and, with regard to its utility, we should be far more inclined to anticipate a beneficial result from that mode of instruction, which is conveyed by religious *practice*, than from that which proceeds from mere outward *profession*. We prefer *actions* infinitely to *words*. In the one there can be no mistake, while the other is pregnant with delusion. It is the great error, we think, of the present day to make the whole of religion consist in mere talking, and feeling, and believing, and to lose the chief business and only legitimate end of it, — the reformation of the heart and conduct. Hence the retention of a philosophical presumption, which, eternally dwelling on its own merits and feelings, to the prejudice of those of every other

person, exalts itself on the ruin of its neighbour's reputation and hence that hypocrisy which cleanses the outside of the cup, but leaves the inner parts full of every impurity. We should, at all events, have thought that it would have been more wise in Dr. Brunton not to have selected this sermon for publication.

On the long-contested question of the education of the poor, we rejoice to see such talents and eloquence employed as evidently belong to Dr. Brunton. The partial extracts, which we can afford to make from the very useful and excellent sermon on this interesting topic, will scarcely do justice to the original, though they may perhaps suffice to give our readers some idea of its merits. Having taken his text from the words of Psalm lxxii., "He shall save the children of the needy," the author remarks :

' "The Prince" of whom the Psalmist speaks, may, in the first instance, be Solomon. But no one can read the context, without being satisfied that the scope of the psalm applies to "a greater than Solomon," — to One from whose wisdom the wisdom of Solomon was but a feeble stream, — to One, of whose glory the glory of Solomon is a feeble emblem. It was the Messiah who was to save the children of the needy.

' There are few features in the character of our Lord on which we dwell with more delighted complacency than the kindness which His apostles represent Him as shewing to "little children."

' Wonderful would have been the condescension — most admirable the grace — had He, in whom dwelt the fulness of knowledge, — vouchsafed to hold converse with "the wise and the prudent" — had He called around Him the few who are entrusted with the management of empire or are enabled to extend the limits of science — had He in their society explained the counsels of His grace, and to them confided the ministry of His word. — But He stoops Himself to the lowliest. — He Himself preacheth "the Gospel to the poor." — He Himself rendereth thanks to His Father that the mysteries of grace are "revealed unto babes." — "Out of the mouth of babes and of sucklings He perfecteth praise." — During His own personal ministry, and in every age of His church, He admitteth the helplessness of childhood to share in the light and the hopes of the Gospel.

' The parents whose hearts were touched with the finger of God, and who crowded round our Lord as the hope of Israel, brought with them often their "little children" also. Placing them before the Saviour, they besought Him to bless them. His apostles, we are informed, — ignorant as yet of their Master's real dignity, on many occasions "rebuked" an intrusion which they considered as derogatory to Him. But He repressed their mistaken zeal. "He said unto them, Suffer little children to come unto me, and forbid them not." And He took the "children into His arms and blessed them." Precious blessing ! How far more precious than

than the temporal benediction which bounded perhaps the parent's wish! Who can doubt that many on whom those holy hands were laid, received a spirit which enabled them to bear their testimony to the truth—to meet suffering and death triumphantly in its cause? Many whom those holy arms enfolded, parted not from their Protector till they were sealed as heirs of immortal glory.

'They who call themselves the disciples of Messiah's teaching,—who call themselves the subjects of Messiah's kingdom,—ought, in all things, to imitate the example of their Lord. Let them follow His footsteps in saving the children of the needy.

'Man, indeed, cannot "save." He alone, by whose word all things were made, can "*save* the children of the needy." But man can do much to place the children of the needy in circumstances where they may find access to those means of grace, through the use of which, in ordinary cases, the Creator appoints that salvation shall come.'

To the objection, which has so often been urged against parochial institutions for the instruction of the lower orders, namely, that it raises the poor above their level in society, and disqualifies them for the humbler duties of their station, Dr. B. opposes various arguments, which we should gladly quote if we could afford to extend these extracts: but in truth it is no easy matter to concentrate into a focus those eloquent passages which are promiscuously scattered through the work, in such a manner as at once to do justice to their merits and to confirm the truth of our own observations.

Of the four lectures, the principal characters are, as they ought to be, sense and truth, clothed in language energetic and awakening. The first, 'On the Characters of Joseph and his Brethren,' contains indeed little that is very original or peculiarly striking, but much that does honour to the heart and feelings of the writer, and is well adapted to improve the temper and correct the passions of either the auditor or the reader. The second is a very excellent commentary on the second Psalm, though it commits the fault of occasional repetition, and at times also exhibits (what we trace too much throughout the volume) a superfluity of ornament, and too elaborate a study of numerical harmony of expression. The third, 'On the Choice of the Apostles,' is less satisfactory and more common-place than its companions; and the last, 'On the Miracle performed at Nain,' is perhaps altogether the one which we should select as the most consistent in merit of the whole collection.

Besides the partial blemishes, which in the course of these remarks we have had occasion to notice, one or two others occur, on which we cannot forbear to throw out a gentle and friendly intimation. Dr. Brunton, we think, is rather

too apt, when he begins to feel a little of the *vis magica* of an inspiring theme, to suffer his imagination and his pen to run wildly over the limits of good sense and taste, and occasionally to incline too nearly to the borders of bombast. An instance may be found in the sermon 'On the Views of the Grave,' in which such sentiments as are commonly seen on the tomb-stones of a church-yard are superbly dressed out in the meretricious finery of studied declamation. — We perceive also another peculiarity in the author's style, which, if not corrected in time, will probably grow into a settled habit, and give to his writings a kind of *mannerism*, which will not be likely to enhance their value or to accelerate their currency. The same words, with which he begins one sentence, he repeats again at the beginning of another, and this is done as often as three, four, or even five times. In the discourse above mentioned, we find this fault combined with a little tincture of rhodomontade, which only increases the nausea. 'Come hither, ye proud, go to the gates of the grave,' &c. 'Come hither, ye who value yourselves, &c. go to the gates of the grave,' &c. 'Come hither, ye votaries of wealth,' &c. 'Come hither, my brother,' and so forth. At page 31., a singular instance of the same error occurs. 'Who, even among those who have felt it, can tell how delightful,' &c. &c.; and, a few lines farther: 'who even among those who have felt it can tell the delight,' and so on, the same words again, and again, and again, occurring not less than five several times in the course of little more than a single page. Dr. Brunton, too, among his other partialities, has a strange fondness for the word 'tabernacle,' which he uses perpetually as a verb: we believe that scarcely a sermon is without the expression '*tabernacled* on earth,' or '*tabernacled* among men,' and in the sixth we have remarked it three times.

With these partial limitations and restrictions, the volume before us deserves much praise; and we think that to the generality of readers it is qualified to impart the charm of gratification, while it may confer on all the more permanent advantages of solid instruction.

ART. XIV. *Chrestomathia* : being a Collection of Papers, explanatory of the Design of an Institution, proposed to be set on foot, under the Name of the Chrestomathic Day School, or Chrestomathic School, for the Extension of the New System of Instruction to the Higher Branches of Learning, for the Use of the middling and higher Ranks in Life. By Jeremy Bentham, Esq. — Also, *Chrestomathia*; Part II. containing Appendix, No. 5., being an Essay on Nomenclature and Classification: including a critical Examination of the Encyclopedical Table of Lord Bacon, as improved by D'Alembert; and the first Lines of a New One, grounded on the Application of the Logical Principle of exhaustively Bifurcate Analysis to the Moral Principle of General Utility. By Jeremy Bentham, Esq. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Payne and Foss.

IN the present treatise, as in all the works of Mr. Bentham, the reader will discover much originality of thought; for the author never sits down to examine any of the objects of intellectual pursuit without illuminating them by the rays of his own enlightened understanding. Indeed his mind is one of those which, in many instances, has advanced so far beyond the ordinary boundary of the age in which he lives, that much of what is found in his various productions is unsuited to our own circumstances and times; and, though it may, perhaps, appear ultimately practicable, that practicability must be regarded rather as an object of remote hope than of present attainment. Still, though this remark applies to a large portion of the labours of Mr. Bentham, they likewise always convey something which is calculated for immediate use, by which some defect in existing institutions may be removed, or some considerable improvement introduced.

The first part of this volume consists principally of two Chrestomathic Instruction Tables, to which numerous notes are appended. These tables exhibit the whole course of instruction which is proposed to be carried on, in what Mr. Bentham calls the Chrestomathic School; and this course, if thus pursued, would include every species of science and of art, into which the tree of knowledge can be ramified. It is certainly possible that scholastic, or, as Mr. Bentham would call it, Chrestomathic Instruction might be made to embrace such an Encyclopedia of art and science: but then it could never all be taught to any one individual: for the capacity to teach can never exceed the capacity to learn; and perhaps there never existed any individual with a capacity for the universality of science and of art. What is called *Genius* is never universal. It is a more than ordinary capacity for pre-eminent excellence in some particular branch

of science and of art; and the attention of genius would be distracted, and its powers weakened, by any attempt to universalize its operations. The division of labour is as necessary to intellectual as to manual excellence; — and indeed the faculties of men naturally differ not only in degree but in kind: so that, though culture may tend to assimilate individuals, yet even culture cannot bestow what original disparity or personal unfitness has denied. Men may certainly be educated into something much better than they are: but they cannot be educated into every thing which Mr. Bentham may suggest. Even his Chrestomathic Schools, though they might add to the aggregate of our knowledge, and might diffuse the diversities of intellectual illumination over a wider surface, would still leave a large and irremediable portion of imperfection and of ignorance.

We will quote one or two of Mr. Bentham's notes on his Chrestomathic tables. One of the branches of study in his Chrestomathic course is

‘ *Hygiastics or Hygiantics.*] From a Greek word, which signifies appertaining to Health: — the branches of art and science, which appertain to health; i. e. to the Preservation as well as Restoration of it. Medicine — Physic — the words most commonly employed on this occasion — are inadequate and delusive. Under the name of Medicines or Physic, drugs are conceived as being to be conveyed into the stomach; and, to the choosing and preparing of these drugs, the idea of this most extensive and diversified cluster of arts and sciences is thus confined.

‘ Of all the bodies, which it can be the object of this or any other course of instruction, to render the scholar more or less acquainted with, — there is not one, the state and condition of which can be of near so much importance to him as that of his own. At this time of life, few, it is true, in comparison, are the instances in which the body is in any way constantly out of order: not a few, in which it scarce ever is. Partly to this cause it seems to be owing, that, in the education of youth, so important a branch of instruction has experienced so general a neglect. Several others, however, have likewise been contributing their share towards the production of this effect. At the time or times in which the plan of School education (not to speak of University education) received its form, Chemistry — one of the necessary bases of Hygiantics — had no existence: and, of the nine other arts and sciences, which, as below, may be stated as being subservient to it, several were nearly in the same case. In those days, the arts not having any clear foundations, there was scarcely any thing which — especially to a mind of the age of a school-boy's — was capable of being taught.

‘ Very different is the case at present. When, by instruction in the several branches herein enumerated, a clear foundation has been laid — as in a moderate space of time it may now be laid —

a few rules may, at a still more moderate expense of time and words, be taught and learnt to great advantage. How to guard against disease and death; considered as liable to be produced, by suddenness or excess of heat, cold, or moisture,—by want of respirable air—by excess in diet or bodily labour:—how to apply to one's self, or to obtain from friendly ignorance, the speediest as well as most effectual relief,—in the case of those accidents, in which the most common disorders take their rise:—a burn, a scald, a flesh wound;—lameness produced by corns; indigestion in its various symptoms;—pains of the rheumatic kind, in the head, tooth, or ear;—what is called a cold, in the several shapes in which that malady is most apt to make its appearance:—how to operate towards the recovery of persons apparently drowned:—in serious cases in general, what to do in the mean time, until professional assistance can be obtained; and when obtained, how to form some judgment as to its competency. To females,—partly on account of the infirmities peculiar to that sex, partly on account of the almost exclusive share which they possess in the management of children of both sexes for several years after birth,—this branch of knowledge is, in a more peculiar degree, important. In point of fact, all Mothers,—all Nurses,—are Physicians. Partly by remedies altogether unapt, partly by ill applied ones, partly by ill grounded and false theories,—in uninstructed families, especially in those in which the expense of professional advice is an object of alarm, it may almost be a question—whether more mischief is not done by medicine, than sustained for want of it. Children, in particular, are not unfrequently enslaved and tormented by unnecessary precautions and groundless fears. Great would be the value of sound Hygiantic instruction, were it only in the character of a preservative against the certain mischief to the purse, and not improbable mischief to the constitution, by quack-medicines;—medicines of unknown composition, presented by those to whom the patient, and with him the particular nature of his case, is unknown. Various are the impositions of which the human body is liable to be made the subject: by a moderate quantity of Hygiantic instruction, such as the course in question could not fail to afford, the mind is rendered proof against them all. It would have its use, were it only to enable a patient to make, to his professional adviser, a correct, complete, and conclusive report of his own case.'

The second part of the *Chrestomathia* is principally composed of an essay on nomenclature and classification.—Mr. Bentham has long been a daring innovator in the use of words; and he scatters his new terms over his page "thick as autumnal leaves that strew the brooks in Vallombrosa." The licence which Horace gives to authors for introducing new words, sparingly borrowed from the Greek, would by no means be sufficient for the more innovating temerity of Mr. Bentham; and, instead of drawing up new phrases from the ample well of Grecian crudition in pint mugs,

he would not be satisfied without extracting at least a hogshead at a time, so as to deluge the surface of our language with myriads of Anglicized Grecisms. — In the specimen with which he has here favoured us, of a “New Encyclopedical Sketch,” with a corresponding art and science-table, the reader is introduced into a new world of words, in which he will vainly endeavour to recognize any of his old acquaintance in the scientific vocabulary at present used; and, if he happen not to have a knowledge of the Greek language, he will be apt to fancy that he shall never be able to see his way through such a wood of outlandish terms. For instance; the following are some of the phrases which Mr. Bentham has employed to designate the different sciences and arts that are comprehended in the Encyclopædia. *Eudæmonics*, *coenosopic*, or *idiosopic*; *somatosopic*, or *somatics*, *pososopic*, or *poiosopic*; *noosopic*; *pathosopic*; *alegomorphic*; *morphosopic*; *physiurgosopic*; *anthropurgosopic*; *plasiosopic*; *coenonesiosopic*; *ergastic*; *anergastic*; *gnostosymbolic*; *agnostosymbolic*; *uranosopic*; *epigeosopic*; *abiosopic*; *embiosopic*; *anapiric*; *catastatitochrestic*, &c. We must do Mr. Bentham the justice to say that he has done us the favour of explaining these and other terms in English, some of which he has formed into quadruple, quintuple, and even sextuple compounds. Thus, *agnostosymbolic* is ‘signs-of-unknown-quantity-regarding;’ *epigeosopic*, ‘things-on-earth-regarding;’ *aneunomotheticosopic*, ‘government-other-wise-than-by-legislation-regarding.’ For our own part, we cannot see how such a revolutionary change of known and antient terms, for terms quite strange and new, can be productive of any benefit, equal to the present and perhaps future inconvenience. The learning of a new language is no very pleasant or very easy task: but Mr. Bentham’s *Chrestomathic* system would compel us not only to learn a new but to unlearn an old language. It would be a tax at once both on our memory and on our forgetfulness. We can readily concede to Mr. B. that there are numerous imperfections in the present nomenclature of the main branches of human knowledge: but we should rather see this nomenclature slowly and gradually improved, than totally and abruptly overturned in order to make way for one that is entirely new. The language which we at present possess is by no means a faultless instrument; yet it is still sufficient for all the scientific, intellectual, social, and moral purposes to which it can be necessary to apply it.

The ensuing extract will furnish the reader with a sufficient specimen of this part of Mr. Bentham’s work on nomenclature

ture and classification. He thus remarks on the subject of ethics:

' First Division of Ethics (taken in the largest sense of the word) viz. into Dicastic, i. e. Censorial, and simply Exegetic, i. e. Expository, or Enunciative. Dicastic, or Censorial, i. e. expressive of a judgment or sentiment of approbation or disapprobation, as intended by the author of the discourse, to be attached to the ideas of the several voluntary actions, (or say, modifications of human conduct,) which, in the course of it, are brought to view: in other words—his opinion, in relation to each such act, on the question—whether it ought to be done, ought to be left undone, or may, without impropriety, be done or left undone.

' Simply Exegetic, i. e. Expository or Enunciative, viz. in so far as, without bestowing any such mark of approbation, disapprobation, or indifference, the discourse has for its object the stating what, in the opinion of the author, has, on each such occasion, actually come to pass, or is likely to have come to pass, or to have place at present, or to be about to come to pass in future, — i. e. what act is, on the occasion in question, most likely to have been done, to be doing, or to be about to be done.

' This division has for its source the nature of the mental faculty, to which the discourse is immediately addressed. In so far as the discourse is of the censorial cast, the faculty to which it addresses itself, and which, in so doing, it seeks to influence, is the volitional—the will, or at any rate the pathematic. In so far as it is of the simply expository, or enunciative, cast, the only faculty to which it immediately applies itself, viz. by seeking to afford information to it, is the intellectual faculty—the understanding.

' For a synonym, Dicastic Ethics may have the single-worded appellative Deontology.

' The principle of division, deduced from this source, will be seen to be applicable, and accordingly applying itself, severally to all the following ones.

' Division of Ethics (whether Expository or Dicastic) into Genicoscopic, i. e. general matters-regarding; and Idioscopic, i. e. particular matters-regarding.

' Synonyms to Genicoscopic, as applied to Ethics, are, 1. Theoretical; 2. Speculative. Synonyms to Idioscopic, as applied to Ethics, is the word Practical.

' In this, as commonly in other cases, the limits between general and particular, not being determinate, so neither are those between what, on the one hand, is theoretical or speculative, — on the other, practical. Of the observations expressed, such part as is allotted to the explanation and fixation of the import of general words, — words of extensive import, the use of each of which is spread over the whole field, or a large portion of the whole field, of the art and science, — will belong mostly to the genicoscopic, theoretical, or speculative branch: and, under the name of Principles, to the above observations will naturally be added any such rules, whether of the expository or the censorial cast, as in this respect are most extensive.

'The deeper it descends into particulars, the more plainly will be seen to belong to the Idioscopic. In so far as, with the incidents exhibited in the fictitious narrative, any rules of a deontological nature (as in modern productions is frequently the case) happen to be intermixed, the matter of novels and romances cannot be included in, and the immense mass of it forms but a part of, the matter of Practical Ethics.

'Division of Ethics,—whether Exegetic or Dicastic, and whether Genicoscopic or Idioscopic,—into Apolioscopic, i. e. political-state-not-regarding, viz. Private Ethics—Ethics in the more usual sense of the word,—and Polioscopic, i. e. political-state-regarding, viz. Government, alias Politics.'

The present indeterminate language both of ethics and religion gives rise to innumerable disputes, which could otherwise be so readily engendered, or waste so much of that time which might be more usefully employed. These disputes, owing to the indefinite and varying sense of terms in which they must be expressed, necessarily run into mere logomachies; and thus some of those violent contentions, in the prosecution of which not only animosity has been kindled but blood has been shed, have been at last found to have had no other object than the fluctuating shadow of a name. Can men ever agree, when they are divided by different and variable ideas to the terms in which they contend on their strife? Geometricians have no logomachies. They are left for moralists and divines. Mr. Bentham would render a great service to mankind, if he could make a catalogue of moral terms more determinate and precise. We are aware that in this and in other respects great remains for improvement: but alterations in the current vocabulary ought not, any more than in the current coin, to be rashly hazarded or abruptly introduced.

ART. XV. *A Treatise on Rivers and Torrents; with the Means of regulating their Course and Channels.* By Paul Frisi, Barnabite, Professor Royal of Mathematics at Milan, Fellow of the Royal Society of London, Member of the Institut National de Bologna—of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at Petersburg of the Royal Academies of Berlin and of Stockholm, &c. Correspondent of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris. To which is added, an Essay on Navigable Canals, by the Sieur de Garstin. Translated by Major-General John Garstin, acting Chief-Engineer on the Bengal Establishment. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boston: Longman and Co. 1818.

THE name of Frisi, or Frisius, frequently occurs in the mathematical history of the last century; and one of the most remarkable, in particular, is dedicated to his memory: Frisius de theod.

theorem being as well known in Mechanics, as Taylor's and Maclaurin's theorems are in the doctrines of Increments and Fluxions. His knowlege of both theoretical and practical Hydrostatics was also very sound and extensive. Of his personal history, however, very little has transpired, at least in this country; no memoir or notice of him, to the best of our recollection, having yet issued from the London press, either in our biographical dictionaries or in the more numerous and comprehensive class of works published under the title of Encyclopedia. The following note of the present translator, short as it is, contains perhaps all that is known of this respectable writer:

'The first edition of the work, as stated by the author in his preface, was printed at Lucca, in 1762: the second, with additions, at Florence, in 1770, eighteen years after the appearance of the first. The author, however, was a native of Milan, where he was born in 1727. During his education, his studies were directed by the regular clerks of St. Paul, or Barnabites, as they were more frequently called, from the church of St. Barnabas, at Milan, which had been bestowed on their order. He took the habit of the order at the age of sixteen; became professor of mathematics in the University of Milan; travelled afterwards through France, England, and Holland; and visited the principal cities of the rest of Europe. He was eminently skilled in Hydrometry and Hydraulics; so high, indeed, stood his reputation, that all the works dependent on a knowledge of Hydrostatics, executed in Italy in his time, were submitted to his inspection and judgment. Maria Theresa, Catherine II., and Joseph II., honoured him with their Patronage; and the most celebrated academies and societies of scientific and literary men enrolled him among their members.'

The natural rivers of Great Britain are small, their operation is regular, and their beds are fixed and determined; at least, they may be considered as such in comparison with some of the magnificent streams of certain countries, and of the ever varying phænomena which they present; particularly when situated in the vicinity of large chains of mountains. The theory of natural rivers has in consequence received but little attention in England; although some difficulties present themselves which have required considerable skill and perseverance to overcome.

We wish to be understood, here, not as alluding to the mouths of rivers, the formation and improvements of harbours, ports, &c., of which our island undoubtedly furnishes more striking examples than any other country in the world: we refer to the progress of English rivers from their source to their point of discharge into the ocean; and these, as we before observed, seem to have their limits assigned by nature:

in which, if any change takes place, it is so slow and uniform as scarcely to be regarded, or, if regarded, easily counteracted in case of necessity. The Thames, it is true, has at times been subject to sudden local deposits, which have threatened the most serious inconveniences; but these have generally been traced to some artificial impediments, injudiciously thrown in the way of the natural operation of the stream. A remarkable instance of this kind occurred within a few years on that shore of the river which is contiguous to Woolwich dock-yard. From the year 1807, a constant accumulation of mud took place along the whole wharf or quay of that important establishment, till it was at length judged necessary to apply a temporary remedy. Accordingly, engines of ingenious construction and powerful operation were employed in excavating these newly formed banks: but they were re-formed as soon as the action of the engines was discontinued. Between October 1807, and April 1811, not less than 688,788 tons of mud had been removed: up to February 1816, the total of the excavation was 1,241,882 tons; and the amount paid to the contractor, independently of the expense of the steam-engines, &c. was 92,254*l.*; after which, as above stated, no permanent benefit had been derived, the evil being rather increased than diminished.

In this state of the port, different plans were suggested for remedying the growing mischief; among which was a proposition for sinking eight ships of war at the western extremity of the yard, in order to furnish an immovable barrier against the daily deposit of mud. What might have been the consequence of this experiment, it is impossible to say, because it was not put in practice: but it might probably have changed entirely the nature of the channel at that point. Some time before, Mr. Brown, an experienced master in the navy, had been appointed master-attendant at the port of Woolwich, and to his mind the cause and the remedy readily presented themselves. He perceived the origin of the evil to lie in the disposition of the ships in ordinary, which had been greatly augmented within a few years: he therefore strongly urged the necessity of their removal; and, though as strongly opposed, he fortunately carried his point: certain of the ships were ordered up the river; 1500 fathoms of mooring chains, which extended from shore to shore, were taken away; to the remaining vessels was assigned a new position; and thus a different bias was given to the stream.

The result of this judicious arrangement soon became visible: the mud, which had in some places accumulated to the depth of 12 or 14 feet, gradually began to be carried off;

in

in less than two years, it wholly disappeared from that extremity of the wharf; and we have understood that a farther improvement is to be carried into effect under the judicious direction of the same gentleman, from which the most advantageous consequences may be anticipated.

We have been somewhat minute in stating the particulars of the above fact, to shew the great importance that attaches itself to a knowledge of the theory of rivers, the nature of currents, and the effects of local impediments. It is here manifested that, by a proper attention to these circumstances, the stream itself has been made to produce a permanent effect; while the artificial means before employed led only to a temporary relief, and their expence frequently exceeded 500*l.* per week.

The subject, however, is as difficult as it is important, and requires long and multiplied observation. In an individual case, an effect may be obvious, and a superficial judge may suppose that he sees the cause equally apparent: but, by extending his observations to a greater length, he will probably perceive the same effect where a similar cause does not exist; and consequently his first supposition must have been erroneous. It follows, then, that an author, who undertakes to write on such a subject, ought not to yield himself up to theory unaided by experience, but to compare his own deductions and those of preceding writers with the result of actual inspection, made under as many and as dissimilar circumstances as the case admits. Such seem to have been the views of the author of the present treatise. Born in a country in which the science of hydraulics had been pursued with the greatest success, he appears to have studied the writings of his several predecessors and contemporaries with the greatest attention; to have compared and examined their hypotheses and deductions; and to have submitted them to the test of observation, made under circumstances different from those whence the latter had been originally obtained. We have thus a statement not merely of the author's own views, but of those of all the most approved writers of an earlier date; which necessarily renders the work more valuable and important. The contents of the volume may be briefly thus given.

Book I. On the origin of rivers, and the causes and phenomena of their floods; on the substances brought down by them; on the first trunks of rivers and torrents; on the rectification and formation of the upper beds of rivers. In the course of this book, the rules and theories of Bacciali, Guglielmini,

lielmini, Manfredi, &c., are examined, and their merits or defects placed fairly before the reader.

The second book treats generally of the slopes and velocities of rivers; commencing with an examination of the circumstances attending the discharge of water from vessels, the form and diameter of the contracted vein, &c. &c. The author then considers the velocity of single rivers, and applies his rules to the known phænomena of certain streams. Next follow the laws of motion observed by water in artificial canals; the velocities of rivers united and divided; the slope or declivities of rivers generally, and in their last trunks in particular; on the distribution of the slopes, &c. &c.

Book III. is confined to an examination of the phænomena of rivers which carry mud and sand, the resistance opposed to them, and the entrance of rivers into the sea.

The above may be considered to constitute the first or principal part of the volume, as connected with the theory of rivers: the other part contains a history of antient and modern canals, an examination of the first principles to be observed in the construction of canals; and the application of these rules to the particular case of Trollhattan, and the canal from the Gotha. The merits of the original work have been long known and established, although perhaps less in this country than in the other scientific nations of Europe. With respect to the translation, it appears to be executed with great precision and accuracy: but we apprehend that it might have been rendered more valuable to engineers by the addition of notes, drawn from more modern sources; for example, in the first chapter of the second book, which treats of the discharge of vessels through apertures, a few concise results from the works of Bossut and De Buat could not but have been found extremely interesting and useful. We think also that, without swelling the volume to an unreasonable size, the same plan might have been advantageously adopted in the treatise on navigable canals. As it is, we have a translation, and mere translation, of Frisi's volume; which is, however, in fact all that General Garstin professes to have given, and we are not aware that we have a right to demand more from him. It has certainly performed that task with great care and accuracy; and the two plans which accompany the volume are equally well executed.

ART. XVI. *Rosalind and Helen*, a Modern Eclogue ; with other Poems. By Percy Bysshe Shelly. 8vo. pp. 92. 5s. 6d. sewed. Ollier. 1819.

WE are here presented with another specimen of the modern school of *poetical metaphysics*. Indistinct, however, and absolutely unmeaning, as Mr. Shelley usually is, he has, in his lucid intervals, a power of composition that raises him much above many of his fellows. We regret, indeed, to see so considerable a portion of real genius wasted in merely desultory fires ; and still more do we lament to observe such extensive infidelity in the mind of a writer who is evidently capable of better things. The practical influence, which his scepticism would seem to have on the poet, is a subject of sincere commiseration. We can overlook a few general sallies of a thoughtless nature : but, when a man comes to such a degree of perverseness, as to represent the vicious union of two individuals of different sexes as equally sacred with the nuptial tie, we really should be wanting in our duty not to reprobate so gross an immorality.

‘ We will have rites our faith to bind,
But our church shall be the starry night,
Our altar the grassy earth outspread,
And our priest the muttering wind.’

So speaks the modern *Helen* ; who seems about as chaste as her antient namesake and prototype ; and this is not the only passage in which such sentiments are clothed in the author’s best garb of words, or put into the mouth of some interesting and amiable being.

When this writer speaks of the ‘ bloody faith,’ we well know *what faith* he means ; and to charge the wicked abuses of darker ages, and of false professors of religion, on *the spirit itself* of the mildest of creeds, is no common degree of audacity. We shall not, however, waste any valuable time on an author who, we fear, is quite incorrigible in this respect ; and we shall rather turn to his poetical merits ; which, with the drawback of obscurity overclouding almost all that he writes, are, on some occasions, of no common stamp.

The following description of a delightful journey, taken by a lover (just released from prison) with his happy love, certainly manifests much force and feeling :

‘ I know not how, but we were free :
And Lionel sate alone with me,
As the carriage drove thro’ the streets apacc ;
And we looked upon each other’s face ;

And

And the blood in our fingers intertwined
 Ran like the thoughts of a single mind,
 As the swift emotions went and came
 Thro' the veins of each united frame.
 So thro' the long long streets we past
 Of the million-peopled City vast;
 Which is that desert, where each one
 Seeks his mate yet is alone,
 Beloved and sought and mourned of none;
 Until the clear blue sky was seen,
 And the grassy meadows bright and green,
 And then I sunk in his embrace,
 Enclosing there a mighty space
 Of love: and so we travelled on
 By woods, and fields of yellow flowers,
 And towns, and villages, and towers,
 Day after day of happy hours.
 It was the azure time of June,
 When the skies are deep in the stainless noon,
 And the warm and fitful breezes shake
 The fresh-green leaves of the hedge-row briar,
 And there were odours then to make
 The very breath we did respire
 A liquid element, whereon
 Our spirits, like delighted things
 That walk the air on subtle wings,
 Floated and mingled far away,
 'Mid the warm winds of the sunny day.
 And when the evening star came forth
 Above the curve of the new bent moon,
 And light and sound ebbed from the earth,
 Like the tide of the full and weary sea
 To the depths of its tranquillity,
 Our natures to its own repose
 Did the earth's breathless sleep attune:
 Like flowers, which on each other close
 Their languid leaves when day-light's gone,
 We lay, till new emotions came.'

We would, in a friendly manner, admonish this poet
stop in time.

The death of Lionel is very striking, but occasionally
 figured by extravagant conceits, and throughout pervaded
 mysticism.

In the lines written among the Eugean Hills, (as
 Shelley barbarously calls them, — *Eugea quantumvis mal
 agna*,) a spirited, handsome, and deserved compliment
 paid to Lord Byron. We extract the best part of it. The
 poet is addressing Venice:

‘ As the ghost of Homer clings
 Round Scamander’s wasting springs ;
 As divinest Shakespeare’s might
 Fills Avon and the world with light
 Like omniscient power, which he
 Imaged ’mid mortality ;
 As the love from Petrarch’s urn,
 Yet amid yon hills doth burn,
 A quenchless lamp, by which the heart
 Sees things unearthly ; so thou art,
 Mighty spirit : so shall be
 The city that did refuge thee.’

sublime volley of bombast is uttered by the hero, in
 presence of his gaolers, at p. 47. :

‘ “ Fear not, the tyrants shall rule for ever,
 Or the priests of the bloody faith ;
 They stand on the brink of that mighty river,
 Whose waves they have tainted with death ;
 It is fed from the depths of a thousand dells,
 Around them it foams, and rages, and swells,
 And their swords and their sceptres I floating see,
 Like wrecks in the surge of eternity.” ’

Field, Nathanaël Lee ! and hide thy diminish’d head !

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, FOR OCTOBER, 1819.

POETRY.

17. *Pastorals.* Ruggiero. With other Poems. By
 D. Baynes, Esq. Translator of Ovid’s Epistles, &c. &c.
 8vo. pp. 57. Hookham. 1819.

We think it is enough to state the author’s own confession that
Pastorals here published were written before his 16th year ;
 and, at all events, to quote, in illustration of that confession,
 the following lines :

‘ The Zemblan freezes in eternal snows,
 With scorching heat the panting Indian glows ;
 Our happier climes no dire extremes molest,
 With milder summers, gentler winters blest ;
 Yet these I’ll quit, if Amaryllis please,
 To burn in India, or in Zembla freeze.’

Some versification of Guthrie, this pastoral misuse of Virgil,
 and thought was exploded among us : — but, it seems,

—— “ *tenet insanabile multos* ;
Scribendi cacoëthes, et ægro in corde senescit ;”

such as their productions may seem to be !
 Nov. Oct. 1819.

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With

With regard to *Ruggiero*, we beg leave to quote a passage, —
 amply sufficient to sicken the strongest appetite of even a moderate
 devourer of versification :

‘ *Ætna*, though now no gazing eye
 Can trace thy varied scenery,
 But fertile plain, and scorch’d ravine,
 With ashes black, or verdure green,
 The same dull aspect show ;
 When day shines on thee, can there be
 A truer type of heav’n than thee ?
 Image of many a differing clime,
 Sweet mountain ! where we see
 The torrid and the frigid zone,
 With the sweet medium of thy own,
 And all that’s pleasing or sublime,
 Mix’d in romantic harmony.’

Poor Walter Scott ! to what a series of imbecility hast thou given
 birth !

We conclude our examination of this work with a *prose*
 extract ; which we conceive to be quite as *poetical* as any thing
 else in the pamphlet, and rather more entertaining :

‘ The author was present at the great eruption of *Ætna* which
 took place in November, 1811. The ashes, which fell in showers
 at Messina, sixty miles distant from the mountain, gave the first
 intimation of the event, and induced him to start immediately
 with a friend, for the scene of one of the sublimest and most
 magnificent spectacles in nature. Arriving about two o’clock in
 the afternoon at the small town of Giarri, leaving their horses,
 and providing themselves with mules and guides, they ascended
 the mountain towards the spot where the volcanic matter had
 burst forth, and was then raging with extraordinary fury ; the
 earth trembling every instant with the most violent concussion,
 whilst the awful roaring and repeated explosions, incident to the
 eruption, seemed to threaten the destruction of the ground on
 which they trod. After scrambling for three hours over the
 ridges of perpendicular precipices, and up the dry beds of tor-
 rents, an exclamation from the guide arrested their attention,
 and informed them that they were arrived at the foot of the
 stream of lava, which at that time had overspread the country to
 the extent of three miles in length from its source, and one in
 breadth : the lava appeared a gigantic mound of moving cinder,
 proceeding in an equal, slow, and majestic progression. It was
 yet daylight, and, in consequence, the lava was black in appear-
 ance : the fire was only discovered by the detachment of large
 masses from the upper part of the mountain of ignited matter,
 owing to the constant impulse. Leaving the mules in the valley, the
 (probably rendered so
 sunk knee deep) while
 about a quarter of a mile

be observed, always forms a mountain of the ashes and other matter which it discharges, the lava boiling up and issuing from a crater at the top. (When ascending Ætna in 1812, the author found this newly-created mountain to be a quarter of a mile in perpendicular height, and not less than a mile in circumference.) It was now dark, and the scenery had assumed a more magnificent appearance: the stream of lava now appeared a continuous and enormous river of liquid flame, sometimes pouring irresistibly forward in a direct line, at others rushing down heights with the violence of a torrent; and a little further, perhaps, gently meandering, according to the sinuosities of the vales into which it had found its way. Although this eruption had taken place in the lower region, yet the spectacle of forests in flames was not wanting to complete the terrific grandeur of the scene. The olive-groves and vineyards, wherever they lay in the course of the lava, were instantly involved in a blaze. On the side of the eruption a different sight presented itself; there the lava boiling over the crater, ran down the sides of the mountain of ashes with the rapidity of water, whilst huge masses of rock, and other ignited substances, hurled into the air to an inconceivable height, came thundering down again in rapid succession, having the appearance of a vast fountain of fire. Behind rose into the clouds the summits of Ætna, already clothed in snow, discovering plainly that the travellers had not surmounted a sixth of its majestic height. On returning at length to the spot where they had quitted their animals, and preparing to take their supper at the foot of the lava for the benefit of the heat, the author and his companion were obliged to decamp with precipitation: the brushwood in the vicinity had taken fire; and so near were they being surrounded in consequence, that it is probable a very few minutes would have numbered them among the many victims of this implacable mountain.'

Perhaps, however, the author will excuse us if we revoke our decision of *finale*, and just present our readers with a few "more of his last words," in the shape of the following amiable little stanza, from '*the Departure*.'

' *She.*

' Stay, O stay, my cruel love!
Oh! whither art thou going?
'Tis most unkind so soon to rove,
Ah! think on my undoing.'

"We apprehend that this may suffice, and will omit the reply of '*He*,' although it is very appropriate.

Art. 18. *London*, a Satire, being the First of a Series, in Imitation of Juvenal. 12mo. pp. 11. Benedict. 1819.

When Johnson's "*London*" first made its appearance, Pope ~~shrewdly~~ observed that the author would soon be "*unearthed*." Passing the metaphor, we may say that the present imitator of Juvenal will soon be "*run to earth*;" if, indeed, ack of crit-

superfluous enough to hunt him thither. The facility of measure will be evident from a quotation of the following

‘ When proud man’s dwelling was the cavernd cell,
His food the acorns, that in autumn fell,
And the robe, that protected from the cold,
The fleecy skin he borrowed from the fold :
Then virtue, that needs but a little room,
Found in his cave a dwelling and a home.
But, banished from the mansions of mankind,
Whose grosser parts her heavenliness refined,
Content and peace have sought their kindred sky,
And left the world to sin and misery.

‘ Soft Italy may send her vagrants o’er,
London will feast them, tho’ the native poor
Beg at, but ever are lashed from, the gate
With the scourge, scorn lends to relentless fate.

‘ Wolves now, because in lambs’ fair clothing rolled,
May leap the fence and prey upon the fold,
And shall none dare to raise the generous cry,
Nor tear the mask, that cheats the public eye ?
Shall the great charter by our fathers gained
From poor weak John no longer be maintained ?
Yes ; Britons now ignobly prefer
The loss of freedom to a customer,
And sneak from town upon election day
Lest they should lose their profits in the fray.
Saloons are praised and patronized, and why ?
‘ Cause those who strip their looks of modesty,’ &c.

We beg the author to give up his intention ; if he be indeed serious about a series of such *Imitations* as the foregoing.

Art. 19. *A Nineteenth Century, and familiar History of the Lives, Loves, and Misfortunes of Abeillard and Heloise, a Matchless Pair, who flourished in the Twelfth Century : a Poem, in Twelve Cantos. Illustrated with Ten Engravings. By Robert Rabelais the Younger ! 8vo. pp. 384. 1l. 1s. Boards. Bumpus. 1819.*

This title-page is characteristic. It would be as impossible for good sense, wit, poetry, or excellence of any description, to proceed from such an introduction, as for Champagne and Burgundy to inhabit the house where “porter, ale, and British spirits,” flare and float upon the sign in front. Not that we are disposed to pursue our comparison ; for we have too much respect for our *home-brewed* liquors to liken them to the vapid, vulgar, and disgraceful stuff which is here submitted to our taste.

No words of contempt are indeed adequate to stigmatize, with due force, this laboured mess of stupidity. We scarcely recollect a grosser instance of the general abuse of the press. Here is a thick, well printed, octavo volume, without one ray of intellect

lect beaming through any part of it : reams of verse, without the shadow of versification ; deluges of English, and not a sentence of the language properly so called. The bedell, the crier, and the common hangman, are the only critics of such a performance ; and we quit the task in utter disgust. The idea of illustrating such a thing with *engravings* (even with such engravings as would be fit for a Jew's travelling basket, and *these* are of a better sort) could never have been conceived, but in times of unmeaning extravagance.

Let our readers justify our severity by enduring one extract, — *better* than hundreds of lines in the book.

‘ Poor Portia ! when she lost her Brutus,
Wept in the groves of the Arbutus,
And calling for a pan of coals,
She ate them all red hot, by goles !
By which she chok'd herself, 'tis said,
— To this was Cato's daughter led :
Unhappy girl ! — ’

Art. 20. *Montalto ; or, the Heart Unveiled.* A Poem in Two Cantos. With other Poems. By Thomas Mac Carthy. 8vo. pp. 68. Reynolds. 1819.

A PECULIAR nonsense distinguishes the style and character of this poem. We are amply aware that a few popular writers (Lord Byron, for instance, and some others,) have introduced an indistinct and confused way of speaking on the human passions, which, by ignorant persons, has been mistaken for metaphysical acuteness and originality ; and thus have those persons hailed the most stale and exploded sophistries, as brilliant and novel discoveries in the philosophy of the mind. In consequence, a number of dull and violent *rhymesters* have rushed out as candidates for popular applause, in the “ *moral descriptive* ” of poetry ; and among them now appears the boisterous yet feeble *Montalto*. We repeat, however, *peculiarly* dull is *Montalto*, in the midst of his absurd compeers and cotemporaries.

The reader may decide from the ensuing stanza : some things are so grossly foolish that they betray themselves at once :

‘ Yet we may bear, — so passion's carking force,
On outward things is wreak'd — nor preys within —
Though prostrate Virtue mark the cataract course
Of headlong purpose and careering sin ;
Fond man may hope, escaped this deafening din,
In memory's light to view his sufferings o'er ;
From the sweet goal of peace he pants to win,
As the worn mariner, exposed no more,
Zests with remembered storms his halcyon hours on shore.’

If this be not enough, we will turn to page 6., and might equally chuse any part of any page following.

‘ But are they blest who plant the flowers of Fame,
Which mock Time's scythe, and flourish ne'er to die,
Shedding their hallow'd fragrance o'er the name,
Which they enwreath ? Can all satiety

Of bright renown that charms Ambition's eye,
 Give peace? or pluck from forth his bosom's core,
 Man's pining curse to wish? — Speak thou, whose sigh
 Was heaved to mingle with the sea-surf's roar,
 Where billowy ramparts shew'd — no worlds to conquer more. —

We will venture to assert that the pamphlet contains scarcely any thing less objectionable than this: but let our readers peruse again that passage about '*all satiety*,' and let them exclaim,

“*Ohe jam SATIS est!*”

We have only farther to observe that, in his minor poems, subjoined to '*Montalto*,' the author is

— '*tost on the billows of Beauty's caprice!*'

NOVELS.

Art. 21. *Oakwood Hall*. Including a Description of the Lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland, and Part of South Wales. By Catherine Hutton, Author of *The Miser Married*. 3 Vols. 12mo. 16s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

The first and third volumes of this novel are more than half filled with 'descriptions of the lakes and part of South Wales,' and many readers will think that an itinerary is a dull interruption to a love-story: but the style of the book is simple, and several of the characters are pleasing. In vol. ii. p. 95., however, the anecdotes of the Colwyn family have neither interest nor moral; and they are so extremely improbable that, being given as facts by Miss Hutton, they remind us of those singular tints and grotesque forms which are sometimes observable in an evening sky, and which, if imitated by a painter, would be considered as an unnatural and unskillful representation. We must also question the testimony given in vol. ii. p. 9., respecting Captain Cook, who is there reported 'to have been a heavy unpleasant man in conversation, with something coarse and vulgar in his manner; respected by his officers on account of his abilities, but not beloved by them, having neither time nor inclination to make himself agreeable.' We know that the surviving companions of this great and good man are affectionately attached to his memory; and that, though he had not the advantages of a gentleman's birth and education, they repeat instances of kindness of heart, love of justice, and dry humour, by which both his character and conversation were rendered highly valuable and agreeable to them.

Altogether, we must still add that this novel is superior to the common run of such publications; as we should expect it to be from the pen of our former acquaintance, Miss Hutton, and the daughter of our still older acquaintance, the singular Mr. H. of Birmingham.

Art. 22. *Leolin Abbey*. By Alicia Lefanu, Author of *Strathallan* and *Helen Monteagle*. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

Miss Lefanu has an agreeable though flowery style of writing, and

and displays a lively fancy, with some general information: but the present tale contains too many principal characters; several of the expressions are affected, such as 'sylphidine form,' vol. i. p. 49.; 'sylphidine delicacy,' p. 232.; —and in vol. i. p. 60. we have a most incredible story of a good-natured wild lion, which, seeing a serpent ready to strangle a baby, flew at the said serpent, killed it, and then staid to be tamed by the child's father.

Art. 23. *A Traveller's Tale of the last Century.* By Elizabeth Isabella Spence, Author of Letters from the North Highlands, &c. &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 16s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

In this tale we can perceive neither mark nor likelihood, neither moral nor meaning, to atone for its obvious grammatical inaccuracies. A few specimens of the writer's English, French, and Italian, will suffice. Vol. i. p. 37. 'the fierce expression of his eyes were rendered terrible:' p. 71. 'Miss Granville has too much of the penseroso and mauvais honte:' p. 73. 'We shall see tout la monde:' p. 100. 'It is very improper in your walking out with only Victoire.' — Vol. ii. p. 163. 'Attendé, Mademoiselle! cette impossible!' — Vol. iii. p. 49. 'she would be ennui in this retired place:' p. 13. 'I promise you no better entertainment, without you prefer the animal creation.' It must be confessed that we should prefer any creation to this effort of Miss Spence's brain.

Art. 24. *The Intriguing Beauty, and the Beauty without Intrigue.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Allman. 1819.

Although the opening of this tale is spirited and entertaining, the manœuvres of the 'Intriguing Beauty' are so black and so barefaced, that we think none but beauties of the Old Bailey would venture to practise them. The novel may, however, be recommended as conveying some judicious satire on the follies of the day.

Art. 25. *The Adventures of an Ostrich Feather of Quality.* By the Author of "The Intriguing Beauty, and the Beauty without Intrigue." Second Edition. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Allman. 1819.

This ingenious little story contains moral lessons enlivened by a variety of anecdotes, though some of them are not in the most refined taste: as, for instance, the history of the servants' ball, p. 27.; that of Miss Molass and her governess, p. 77.; and the description of Lady Waddwell, p. 91.

EDUCATION.

Art. 26. *The Rambles of a Butterfly.* By Mary Belson. Small 12mo. 2s. half-bound. W. Darton. 1819.

This little book may amuse children and teach them lessons of humanity: but a few verbal errors in it require to be corrected, such as, p. 22., 'a table over which was dispersed books, maps,' &c. P. 96. 'you could not do other than what you have done.'

Art. 27. *True Stories, from Ancient History, chronologically arranged from the Creation of the World to the Death of*

Charlemagne. By the Author of "Always Happy." Small 12mo. 3 Vols. 7s. 6d. half-bound. Harris and Son. 1819.

While these stories are related in plain and simple language the chronological arrangement is a great additional recommendation, and the writer's moral reflections are judiciously introduced. We may point out a few trifling oversights for his revision in another edition. Vol. i. p. 17. *Tyndaris* king of Sparta should be written Tyndarus: *Tyndaris* being a patronymic of Helen, and *Tyndarus* the name of her father. Page 68. The *Curatii* should be Curiatii. P. 118. Porsenna is called king of *Clusum*, but he was king of Etruria; and *Clusium*, not Clusum, was one of the ancient divisions of Etruria, and also the name of a city. — In vol. ii. p. 103. it is said that 'a soldier who saw Pyrrhus fall, instantly cut off his head:' this is not quite accurate, for Plutarch relates that Pyrrhus gave this soldier, Zopyrus, so fierce a blow that he was struck with terror, and in his confusion missed his neck, wounding him only in the mouth and chin, so that it was a long time before he could separate the head from the body.

B O T A N Y.

Art. 28. *Supplementum Plantarum Succulentarum, sistens Plantas novas vel nuper introductas, sive omissas in Synopse Plantarum Succulentarum: cum Observationibus variis Anglicanis. Autore, A. H. Haworth, Linn. Soc. Lond. Socio, &c. Adjungitur Narcissorum revisio.* Cr. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Harding. 1819.

This is a valuable supplement to the synopsis of succulent plants, by Mr. Haworth, who has been long celebrated for his partiality to their curious forms, and for knowing more about them than any other botanist. For some assistance he has been indebted to his Highness the Prince de Salm Dyck, who is himself a zealous cultivator of *Aloes*; to M. Van Marum; to M. Otto, the King of Prussia's botanic gardener; and especially to the worthy successor of Miller at Chelsea, Mr. Anderson: to whom indeed the present work owes its appearance, he having first suggested the necessity of it. Besides these friends, two others, if last mentioned; not least in doing acts of kindness with a liberal hand to the author, were Mr. Aiton of the Royal Gardens at Kew, and W. J. Burchell Esq., who has travelled into new regions far beyond the Cape of Good Hope.

All the new plants, with some before discovered, are arranged according to the Linnéan system. — First, 15 species of *Piper* are given, one of which, from *Brazil*, the *Incanum*, is fully described, and distinguished from the *Velutinum*. — Six species of *Plumeria*, and a new *Echites* named *Tuberosa*, follow; and to *Stapelia*, with several other genera already detached from that genus by the author, large additions are made. A beautiful *Pharnaceum* is called *Pruinosum*, from its frosted habit; then six *Crassulas* and 15 *Cotyledons* are distinguished, under the last of which occurs the following quotation from Miller. Speaking of succulent plants, he says; "In October, you should remove them into the conservatory as near the windows as possible, keeping them open whenever the

the weather is good. And now abate your waterings, giving them sparingly, but you should not suffer their leaves to shrink for want of moisture, which is another extreme some people run into, for when they are suffered to shrink (not die gradually away) for want of sufficient moisture to keep their vessels distended, they are rendered incapable of discharging their moisture whenever they receive it again." This golden passage, the present author modestly adds, he hopes will have more effect over those who read it, than all that he himself had heretofore stated to the same purpose.

In *Yucca*, as many as 17 species are recorded; and *Littæa*, for plants of which, while it was supposed to be a *Bonaparteæ*, such large sums were refused by our nurserymen, is justly, we think, admitted to generic honours. *Aloe*, *Gasteria*, *Haworthia*, and *Apicra*, the last genus differing from *Haworthia* in its regular flower, all contain many new species; while the natural orders of *Ricinææ*, *Cactææ*, and *Mesembryanthææ*, form nearly all the rest of this supplement: but two new species of that beautiful genus, *Begonia*, must not be omitted. This last is now considered as a natural order rather than a genus, by several botanists; and Mr. Salisbury, who formerly made it the connecting link of *Monocotyledones* and *Dicotyledones*, now places it between *Cucurbitacææ* and *Ricinææ*; several species of *Euphorbia*, L., called *Anisophyllum* by Mr. Haworth, having inæquilateral leaves.

At the end of the succulent plants, a separate treatise on *Narcissi* is added. Here all the genera proposed by Mr. Salisbury, in the Transactions of the Horticultural Society, only with names, (the admission of their botanic distinctions having been judged by the council to encroach on the claims of the Linnæan Society,) are established by characters by Mr. H., with many useful hints relative to species. *Ajax* contains all the *Daffodils*; and *Corbularia* the rush-leaved *Daffodils*, or *Hoop Petticoats*, which differ in habit and declinated irregular filaments. Under *Queltia*, we find the species allied to *Incomparabilis* of Curtis, the double varieties of which are vulgarly called *Butter and Eggs*. — *Schisanthes* is now first proposed as a distinct genus by the author, on account of its deeply gashed crown: but we think that it must remain under *Hermione*. *Ganymedes*, however, is a truly natural genus, distinguished instantly by its turned back *Cyclamen*-like flowers; and of this as many as six species are recorded. In *Phlogyne*, (misprinted throughout *Phylogyne*,) we have five species of the large rush-leaved *Jonquil*. One of its essential generic characters, omitted by Mr. Haworth, consists in its filaments being approximated in the middle of the tube round the style, as in *Ajax*; hence Mr. Salisbury's name φίλος, *amicus*, γυνή, *mulier*. Under *Hermione*, the true rush-leaved *Jonquils* gradually melt into the broad-leaved *Tazettas*; and *Narcissus* is confined to the species with a short chaffy crown, often scarlet at the edge: two, if not three, distinct species of these were no doubt introduced under that name by the Greek and Latin poets. Mr. Haworth's last species of *Hermione*, *Narcissus Viridiflorus* of the Botanical Magazine, is

considered by Mr. Salisbury as *sui generis*, on account of its flowering before the leaves appear, and its crown, which consists of six entirely distinct flaps or processes, being very thick and fleshy, not one simple membrane, entire at the base: he names it *Prasiteles*, from *πρασινος*, *colore possi*, and *τελεος*, *perfectus*, the colour of its flowers being of a vivid sea-green.

We have detected several errors in the *Index*.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 29. *The Life of Jesus Christ*, including his Apocryphal History, from the spurious Gospels, unpublished Manuscripts, &c. &c. Embellished with a Head of Jesus. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1818.

Some of the matter which is here brought together from the apocryphal gospels, and other sources not of common access, may interest the curiosity of those by whom the original works have not been seen; and the information contained in this volume is sufficient to shew the extent to which the forgery of certain documents, that are more or less connected with the Christian system, was carried in a very early period of the church. We should at the same time remember, when we are perusing the whole or parts of the apocryphal gospels, that nothing is forged which there is no interest in reading: so that the multiplicity of forgeries, on this subject, furnish incontestable evidence of the general interest which it had excited, and of the avidity with which every account relative to it was perused. The spurious gospels respecting Christ are much more numerous than the true: but even the forged tend to prove the principal circumstances of his history; and at any rate they demonstrate that, at a very early period, whatever was said concerning this Great Teacher of mankind was sure to command attention, whether it consisted of contemporaneous truth or of subsequent fiction.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 30. *The Protestant's Catechism on the Origin of Popery*, and on the Grounds of the Roman Catholic Claims; to which are prefixed the Opinions of Milton, Locke, Hoadley, Blackstone, and Burke: with a Postscript on the Introduction of Popery into Ireland by the Compact of Henry II. and Pope Adrian, in the Twelfth Century. By the Bishop of St. David's. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1818.

The learned Bishop Burgess is well known for the zeal with which he has opposed the oppugners of the Trinitarian doctrine on the one hand, and the vindicators of the Roman Catholic claims on the other. We will quote the first part of the preface to the present work, because it will serve to shew the spirit which it breathes, and the topics which it comprehends:

'In a country, which has suffered so much from Popery as this has done, both before and since the Reformation, it would be incredible, that the Roman Catholic claims should find any advocate among Protestants, if we did not know the many delusions

lusions and fictions, by which it has so long practised on the liberality, the credulity, and the indifference of the public.

‘ Its delusive pretensions to antiquity and universality are the subject of the first fifteen sections of the following Catechism, in which it is shewn, that the Pope had no connection with this country for the first six centuries of Christianity; — that, whatever degree of authority was permitted to him by the Saxon sovereigns, for the religious instruction of their subjects, the Pope’s jurisdiction was not established in England till the twelfth century, and then only by violent usurpation; — that Popery was therefore an intruder upon the Church of England, and not the Church of England upon Popery; — and that the Reformation of the Church of England was not a separation from the Church of Rome, (for by what lawful or national act were the two churches ever united?) — not a schism in the Church of England, (for that, after the lapse of four centuries of usurpation, was become itself again,) — but a final rejection of the Bishop of Rome’s authority, and a resumption of our ancient independence, and Protestant character. I say final rejection of the Pope’s authority, because, in fact, his authority was restricted and rejected by parliament from the time of Edward I. our English Justinian, and first Protestant legislator, though the laws were over-ruled by Popish counsels and principles. The claims of that portion of our fellow-countrymen, who, contrary to law, and the constitution, still acknowledge the Pope’s supremacy over the Church of England, to re-admission to political power, from which they have been excluded by inviolable oaths and statutes, and national covenants, are the subject of the last nine sections of the Catechism.’

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *Excursions through the Counties of Essex, Suffolk, and Norfolk*; comprizing Descriptions of the Residences of the Nobility and Gentry, Remains of Antiquity, and every other most interesting Object of Curiosity: illustrated with Three hundred Engravings. 12mo. Five Numbers for each County. 2s. 6d. each Number, sewed. Longman and Co.

These Excursions through Essex, Suffolk, and Norfolk, form part of a series which is intended to embrace the whole of Great Britain and the sister-island: but, as the description of each county will be separate and complete, it is left to the choice and convenience of purchasers to possess themselves of the entire work or any of its numbers.

We have particular pleasure in directing the attention of our readers to this useful and interesting compilation. Its recommendations, indeed, are of a superior order. The specimens before us contain a variety of local and historical information, conveyed in an easy and pleasing style; and accompanied by numerous engravings which, though small, are so eminently beautiful, that they not only reflect great credit on the artists employed, but afford a gratifying testimony of the progress which

which has been made within these few years in this species of embellishment. We have no doubt that this elegant little work will meet with the encouragement which it deserves; and we will add one more to its catalogue of merits, that, with a reference to the price at which books are now generally published, it may be regarded as remarkably cheap.

Art. 32. *Practical Chess-Grammar; or, an Introduction to the Royal Game of Chess: in a Series of Plates.* Designed to amuse and instruct the Learner, remove the Difficulties of this elegant and scientific Game, and render it attainable by the lowest Capacity. By W. S. Kenny. 4to. pp. 57. 7s. Boards. Allman; &c.

In our lxxiid volume, p. 351., we reviewed Mr. Sarratt's work concerning the more eminent writers on Chess. On that occasion, we exhausted our erudition, and exerted our powers of inference, to attain a probable theory of the origin and history of the game; and, as it would be superfluous to repeat details that are interesting only to one class of readers, we may now content ourselves with observing that chess appears to have begun in Hindostan as a game of chance; in which state it had travelled to Persia when the Koran appeared, and forbade all games of hazard. The Persians then made the characteristic improvement of the Hindoo *Chaturanga*, which converted it into chess, and introduced the vizir, or queen, to ally two armies which had previously independent kings. The Persians handed to the court of Constantinople this game, which the Greeks called *Zatrikion*; and the Crusaders imported it into Europe. There are still some undecided points of law about the game: in the East, the queen has the knight's move, but not in Europe; and some methods of castling are in use on the Continent, which are not received in Great Britain. The play is well characterized in the motto on the Chess Coffee-House at Paris:

"Hic operosa quies, et doctis nota voluptas."

Mr. Kenny presents us with a chess-grammar illustrated by numerous engravings. First occurs a general introduction, whence we learn that the author has been in the habit of teaching chess to various pupils of both sexes for a specific remuneration; and that his manuscript-directions, progressively enlarged by the suggestions of experience, form the basis of the ensuing pages. He first treats of the march of the pieces, and then of that of the pawns. A separate chapter is allotted to the king, to the queen, to the bishops, to the knights, and to the castles. Then follow a treatise on opening the game, general maxims, and rules. The laws of chess, as acknowledged by the London Chess-Club, are also detailed; a treatise on concluding the game is subjoined; curious examples of critical situations are collected; and a graphic delineation is inserted of a circular chess-board used by the celebrated Timoor. An appendix of anecdotes closes the volume, whence we will select a few particulars.

In

‘ In the chronicle of the Moorish kings of Granada, we find it related, that in 1396, Mchemed Balba seized upon the crown in prejudice of his elder brother, and passed his life in one continual round of disasters. His wars with Castille were invariably unsuccessful; and his death was occasioned by a poisoned vest. Finding his case desperate, he dispatched an officer to the fort of Salobreno to put his brother Jusaf to death, lest that prince’s adherents should form any obstacle to his son’s succession. The alcaide found the prince playing at chess with an *alsagui*, or priest. Jusaf begged hard for two hours’ respite, which was denied him; at last, with great reluctance, the officer permitted him to finish the game; but, before he had finished, a messenger arrived with the news of the death of Mehemed, and the unanimous election of Jusaf to the crown.

‘ The following account of an automaton chess-player exhibited in England in 1783 may not be uninteresting to the reader. Mr. de Kempelen, a gentleman of Presburg, in Germany, constructed an automaton capable of playing at chess. Every one who is in the least acquainted with this game must know that it is so far from being mechanically performed, that it requires a greater exertion of judgment and rational faculties than is sufficient to accomplish many matters of greater importance. An attempt, therefore, to make a wooden chess-player must appear as ridiculous as to make a wooden preacher or counsellor of state. That this machine really was made, however, the public have had ocular demonstration. The inventor came over to Britain in 1783, where he remained above a year with his automaton. It is a figure as large as life, in a Turkish dress, sitting behind a table, with doors of three feet and a half in length, two in depth, and two and a half in height. The chair on which it sits is fixed to the table, which runs on four wheels. The automaton leans its right arm on the table, and in its left hand holds a pipe: with this hand it plays after the pipe is removed. A chess-board of eighteen inches is fixed before it. This table, or rather cupboard, contains wheels, levers, cylinders, and other pieces of mechanism, all which are publicly displayed. The vestments of the automaton are then lifted over its head, and the body is seen full of similar wheels and levers. There is a little door in its thigh, which is likewise opened; and with this, and the table also open, and the automaton uncovered, the whole is wheeled about the room. The doors are then shut, and the automaton is ready to play; and it always takes the first move. At every motion, the wheels are heard; the image moves its head, and looks over every part of the chess-board. When it checks the queen, it shakes its head twice, and thrice in giving check to the king. It likewise shakes its head when a false move is made, replaces the piece, and make its own move; by which means the adversary loses one. Mr. de Kempelen remarks, as the most surprising circumstance attending his automaton, that it had been exhibited at Presburg, Vienna, Paris, and London, to thousands, many of whom were mathematicians and chess-players, and yet the secret by which he governed the motion of its arm was never

never discovered. He prided himself solely on the construction of the mechanical powers by which the arm could perform ten or twelve moves. It then required to be wound up like a watch, after which it was capable of continuing the same number of motions. The automaton could not play unless Mr. de Kempelen or his substitute was near it to direct its moves. A small square box, during the game, was frequently consulted by the exhibitor, and herein consisted the secret, which he said he could in a moment communicate. He who could beat Mr. de Kempelen was, of course, certain of conquering the automaton. His own account of it was: "*C'est une bagatelle qui n'est pas sans merite du côté du mécanisme, mais les effets n'en paroissent si merveilleux, que par la hardiesse de l'idée, et par l'heureux choix des moyens employés pour faire l'illusion.*" In order to counteract the supposition that the machine was directed by a concealed magnet, the strongest and best armed loadstone was allowed to be placed on it by any of the spectators. Many other curious imitations of the human body, as well as of other animals, have been exhibited, though none of them equal to this chess-player.—The celebrated Philidor reached such a point of perfection in the game of chess, that at the age of eighteen, he, in Paris, beat two good chess-players at once, at different boards, without seeing them, playing entirely from strength of memory; and afterwards, in London, he twice conquered in a similar way three antagonists at the same time, each at a different board. From the London news-papers of May 9. 1783, the following account is extracted, with the names of his respectable adversaries subjoined, which proves a *fact*, of which future ages might otherwise entertain some doubt:—"Yesterday, at the chess-club in St. James's Street, Mr. Philidor performed one of those wonderful exhibitions for which he is so much celebrated. He played at the same time three different games, without seeing either of the tables. His opponents were Count Bruhl, Mr. Bowdler, and Mr. Maseres. To those who understand chess, this exertion of Mr. Philidor's abilities must appear one of the greatest of which the human memory is susceptible. He goes through it with astonishing accuracy, and often corrects mistakes in those who have the board before them.—Mr. Philidor sits with his back to the tables, and some gentleman present, who takes his part, informs him of the move of his antagonist, and then, by his direction, plays his pieces."

This automaton chess-player, or an *alter et idem*, we believe, is still in London.

We do not think that the literal notation of the moves employed by this author is so concise or convenient as that which was invented by Moses Hirschel, and adopted in the *Stratagèmes des Echecs* and other continental publications. Here, a great many delineations are requisite to describe a complex situation, or a critical move. We exhort the author to acquire and add to a new edition of this work the neater and now usual passigraphy of the continental chess-players.

Montagne says of chess that it is a puerile game, which, like guessing riddles, employs much intellect about a worthless purpose;

pose; and Cardinal Cajetan contended that it was an impious diversion, because it engrossed that intense thinking which ought to be consecrated to the contemplation of the Deity and the cares of futurity. Yet, in spite of such censurers, the game remains dear to the idleness of genius, banishes the *ennui* of intellect, and is one passport to the society of the accomplished throughout the globe.

S I N G L E S E R M O N S .

Art. 33. *The Scriptural Doctrine of Man's Salvation:* preached at the Cathedral Church of Chester, before the Judges of the Assize, September 6. 1818. By George Henry Law, D.D. F.R. and A.S. Lord Bishop of Chester. The Second Edition. Published by Request. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rodwell and Martin.

Though this right reverend author very cogently insists on the necessity of *faith*, yet he wisely represents moral *practice* as the condition of acceptance with the Deity; shews a laudable anxiety to counteract doctrines of an opposite tendency; and notices the lamentable effects which, in particular instances, such doctrines have produced.

‘It is incumbent upon every friend to religion and virtue, upon every well-wisher to social order, and the happiness of man, as at all times, so particularly now, to point out the utter hopelessness of obtaining salvation, without the observance of the laws of God. Whatever is substituted in the place of Christian morality, must, in the end, prove treacherous and fatal. Nor are the evil effects, alas! of such a system of religion, to be deduced from theory, they have been too well attested by facts. Future remunerations have been holden out independent of moral obedience. Vice has been rendered confident of salvation, and the great barrier has been thrown down, between him who serveth God and him who serveth him not. The most atrocious violators of the law have lulled their consciences with some fancied experiences of faith, and they who have broken every commandment upon earth have yet looked for their reward in heaven. Hence the composedness with which even murderers have gone, from scenes of horror to the house of God. Hence the facility with which such persons have turned, from shedding blood to praying. To the same cause also must we attribute that growing hardihood in crime, through which convicted assassins so often deny their guilt, though almost in the presence of their Maker: and thus only can we account for that presuming audacity with which creatures, covered with guilt, have in their last moments dared confidently to boast, that they are ascending—from the scaffold itself—unto the right hand of God!!!’

Art. 34. *The Christian Covenant:* preached at Gainsborough, July 24. 1818, at the Visitation of the Lord Bishop of Lincoln, and published at the Request of his Lordship and the Clergy. By the Rev. S. Smallpage, M.A. 4to. 1s. Longman and Co.
• Mr. Smallpage has here ably marked the scriptural line of discrim-

crimination between *faith* and *works*, as they are relatively and conjointly supposed to contribute to the future happiness of the individual.

Art. 35. *Female Virtue and domestic Religion recommended by the Example of our late illustrious Queen Charlotte, and our final Change impressed*; delivered on the Morning of her late Majesty's Funeral, at Clerkenwell Church. By the Rev. S. Piggott, A.M. Curate. 8vo. 1s. Longman.

Mr. Piggott has here made the domestic virtues of our late Queen the theme of warm and merited panegyric. Her beneficence appears to have been unostentatious, and hence it has been more known since her death than during her life. This is no small merit in an age in which even charity is made an object of display.

Art. 36. *The Grace of God to Britain in this Day of Christian Light and Privilege: and our Obligation not to receive this Grace in vain*: delivered at the Female Orphan Asylum, December 13. 1818, preparatory to the Election of a Morning Preacher. By the Rev. S. Piggott, A.M. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

Although this sermon is not deficient in what is called Orthodoxy, it is not remarkable for any force of argument or elegance of diction.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We fully agree with our friend *Vigilans* that these are 'extraordinary times,' and that much more seems likely yet to arise which will justify their claim to be so called. For ourselves, we can only watch events as they occur, and principles as they are promulgated; never relaxing, we trust, from our own duty, nor forgetting the true basis on which the envied *British Constitution* is founded. During *seventy years* we have been its supporters, "amid good report and evil report;" and we are still, as ever, disposed to "shed the last drop of our *ink*" in its service.

The object of Q. Q.'s letter duly reached our hands, and we propose to pay attention to it when we have an opportunity.

P. Q. R. is not worthy of a moment's attention, if he be serious, and has no pretensions to wit if intending to be jocose: but his letter is so equivocal that we do not pretend to understand it, and can only determine that it is no object of discussion.

. In the last Review, p. 37. l. 25., for '*Pickwood*,' r. *Pickford*. P. 97. l. 34-35., for '*quantity*,' read *quality*.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. lxxxix. was published with the Review for September on the 1st of October.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1819.

ART. I. *Tales of the Hall.* By the Rev. George Crabbe, LL.B.
8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Murray. 1819.

A STRANGE revolution certainly has occurred in the poetical taste of England: the pleasure which was derived from the perusal of poetry, a few years ago, was very different from that of its present readers; and many qualifications were then necessary to render a poet popular, from which he now enjoys a complete dispensation. Among these, we may enumerate some sort of dignity or elegance in the subject, — a selection of picturesque or impressive circumstances, — and an adaptation of proper or adorned phraseology to the characters and incidents of the piece. All this, however, has passed away; and provided that the one indispensable quality of energy be infused into the leading action, or, perhaps, of extravagant wickedness in the *leading actor*, with occasional felicity in the expression, neither slovenliness of style nor ruggedness of versification in the *general* frame-work of the poem will prove any obstacle to its eminent success.

The prevailing effect of the works of our elder poetical artists often reminded us of the chastised and elegant pleasure, that is derived from the productions in the sister-art of painting which either belong to the school of Italy, or are formed on that professed model. Our contemporary poets, on the contrary, have in their few laboured passages a Dutch minuteness of detail; and, generally careless of the grandeur or refinement of their subject-matter, they are satisfied with dressing their boors in appropriate trowsers, and painting the sign-posts of their ale-houses with broadly contrasted colours. In a word, poetry has been called down from that exalted region in which it was the delight of a few cultivated minds, and is now lowered to the pitch of the meanest intellect, and made the food of the vulgar. Its "*decent drapery*" is torn away, and its *ideal beauty* is prostrate in the dust. As we really feel ashamed, however, to reiterate these obvious truths in the ears of our countrymen, we shall be satisfied with the numer-

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ous protests which we have already entered, in the pages of our Review, against this degradation of the heavenly art of poetry, with the consequent debasement of our literary taste and tone altogether; and we shall turn from a general question, which cannot be very acceptable to those who seem to have made up their minds respecting it, to a more particular discussion of the merits and defects of the work immediately before us.

It will not be expected that we should again draw a studied character of an author, who has for so many years (although with a long interval of silence, and, in our judgment, with a very altered manner on his re-appearance) submitted his efforts to the public tribunal. The class of subjects, with which Mr. Crabbe successfully began his poetical career, still indeed continues to employ him: but, to our conception, he has been encouraged by the prevailing relaxation of taste in poetry, till he has been carried, in the train of familiar and prosaic versification, to such an extreme liberty both of thought and language, that his present lucubrations bear only that resemblance to the compositions of our classical school of rhyme, which the caricatures of Rowlandson bear to the cartoons of Raphael. Yet, with all this verbose garrulity of metrical conversation, this every-day talking in rhyme, he frequently displays a vigour and correctness of description, a deep observation on the human heart, or a striking trait of manners, which place him at the head of the moral painters of the age. Low as that age has fallen in literary taste Mr. Crabbe feels it to be no longer necessary to study the conciseness and the classical precision which marked his earlier couplets. He has in his view no Johnson, no Burke, now to satisfy; and, accordingly, he is contented with a rare couple or two of finished excellence, while in the great majority of rhymes he cares little for cadence and less for expression and, above all his other faults, offends by a tautology that is equally feeble and unpoetical.

Our readers shall now have an opportunity of judging whether we have overcharged the picture of imperfection. At the same time, we beg them to bear in mind the portion of praise which we are eager to bestow on this old favourite of the public; and, if *they* also are of the number of the indulgent *spoilers* of the muse, and can forgive *all* her other defects if she be but *energetic* on certain marked occasions then, we have no doubt, they will deem our objections quite hypercritical and obsolete: while they dwell with undiminished delight on the nervous and the natural portraits of thi

this Hogarth of English poetry, as his warmer admirers will be ready to denominate him.

Two brothers, who have been educated in a wholly different manner, and have not met during the greater portion of their lives, are brought together at last, and amuse themselves by mutual narratives. The events of their own youth, and the fruits of their experience in ample converse with mankind, form the subject of their happy after-dinner colloquies: but the connecting matter, by which their stories are united, is generally of so prosaic a description, that we have been tempted to wish even for a recurrence to the Gothic mixture of prose and verse in Moore's "*Lalla Rookh*," rather than be required frequently to peruse such *stuff* as we are about to quote. We use this degrading expression, not only because we think it is amply deserved, but because we are yet anxious (in spite of the faint hope of prevailing on a corrupted taste to attend to such suggestions) to do all that we can to mark with reprobation that audacity, which would palm on the public such *admeasurements of prose for real poetry*. The lines in italics are among those which we condemn:

Book the Seventh.

- ' The morning shone in cloudless beauty bright;
Richard his letters read with much delight—
George from his pillow rose in happy tone,
 " His bosom's lord sate lightly on his throne."
They read the morning news—they saw the sky
Inviting call'd them, and the earth was dry.'

Book the Tenth.

- ' Save their kind friend the rector, Richard yet
 Had not a favourite of his brother met.'

Book the Eleventh.

- ' Three days remain'd their friend, and then again
 The brothers left, themselves to entertain.'
 ' *Themselves to entertain!* '—and this is the manner in which a popular poet is to abuse his advantages, and to laugh in the easy, good-humoured, faces of his unsuspecting readers!

- " Well — be it so — the time is gone,
 When Dryden pour'd a matchless lay;
 When Pope's unclouded morning shone,
 Or gentle Goldsmith's evening ray."

Book the Twelfth. — Sir Owen Dale.

- ' Again the brothers saw their friend the PRIEST,
 Who shared the comforts he so much INCREASED;
 Absent of late — and thus the Squire ADDRESS'D
 With welcome smile, his ancient friend and GUEST.'

Priest and increas'd, address'd and guest, would perhaps twenty or thirty years ago, have been considered as terminations of too similar a kind to furnish four successive rhymes but to object to such matters now would be to speak unintelligibly to many readers, and hypercritically to many more.

Book the Thirteenth.

*' Three weeks had past, and Richard rambles now
Far as the dinners of the day allow ;
He rode to Farley Grange and Finley Mere,
That house so ancient, and that lake so clear ;
He rode to Ripley through that river gay,
Where in the shallow stream the loaches play,' &c. &c.*

We would ask any dispassionate person, whether it would be more "*difficile* than to *whistle*," to go on scribbling ten feet after ten feet of verse (by courtesy so called) in perfect unison with the foregoing?

We have not selected these introductory fragments because they are worse, in any degree, than hundreds of their brethren throughout these volumes, but because they are *introductions*; and because they shew, plainly, to any unprejudiced reader, the little pains which Mr. Crabbe has taken (although he seems to deceive himself on this point in his preface) in *composing* the present work: that is, in all but certain favourite, and no doubt very powerful, passages. The inartificial thread on which all the stories are strung, the absolute *prose* of these connecting portions of the '*Tales of the Hall*,' to any *old* reader of *old* poetry, must be great drawbacks from his own pleasure, and from the merit of the whole performance. As to us, we confess that such patches of familiar conversation, interspersed occasionally with high and heart-rending subjects of feeling, have the effect of a pail of dirty water flung into a face which has just begun to be agitated with some heroic emotion!

Let us now, for a while, turn to a far more pleasant occupation, than this of vituperative criticism on the writings of a man of acknowledged *genius*. We only wish that some good dæmon would whisper in his ear, — "Crabbe, have a *taste*," and then these anomalies would never have occurred, to debilitate his vigorous and often pathetic efforts.

The beginning of the second book is very good:

*' At length the brothers met, no longer tried
By those strong feelings that in time subside ;
Not fluent yet their language, but the eye
And action spoke both question and reply ;
Till the heart rested, and could calmly feel,
Till the shook compass felt the settling steel :*

Till playful smiles on graver converse broke,
 And either speaker less abruptly spoke :
 Still was there oft-times silence, silence blest,
 Expressive, thoughtful—their emotions' rest ;
 Pauses that came not from a want of thought,
 But want of ease, by wearied passion sought ;
 For souls, when hurried by such powerful forces,
 Rest, and retrace the pleasure of the course.
 They differ'd much ; yet might observers trace
 Likeness of features both in mind and face ;
 Pride they possess'd, that neither strove to hide,
 But not offensive, not obtrusive pride :
 Unlike had been their life, unlike the fruits,
 Of different tempers, studies, and pursuits ;
 Nay, in such varying scenes the men had moved,
 'Twas passing strange that aught alike they loved :
 But all distinction now was thrown apart,
 While these strong feelings ruled in either heart.

• As various colours in a painted ball,
 While it has rest, are seen distinctly all ;
 Till, whirl'd around by some exterior force, ..
 They all are blended in the rapid course :
 So in repose, and not by passion sway'd,
 We saw the difference by their habits made ;
 But, tried by strong emotions, they became
 Fill'd with one love, and were in heart the same ;
 Joy to the face its own expression sent,
 And gave a likeness in the looks it lent.'

It is obvious that some *verbiage* and some unnecessary minuteness disfigure this eloquent delineation ; and these are Mr. Crabbe's predominant offences, even in his best moments : but we perceive a manly tone and a poetical illustration in this extract, which we will not offend our readers by more distinctly pointing out. We must, however, once more call their attention to that beautiful simile, (blemished by bad grammar,)

• Till the heart rested, and could calmly feel,
 Till the shook compass felt the settling steel.'

The fate of an unsuccessful painter is forcibly described in the third book ; and much in this passage carries us back to Mr. Crabbe's earliest, and, as we shall always maintain, his happiest manner. If it may be thought that a Dutch particularity of description occurs in some of the lines, which borders rather on the ludicrous than the pathetic, and a familiarity in others with which it is difficult to sympathize in due decasyllabic majesty of sorrow, still the most fastidious judges must, we think, be struck with the whole effect ; and looser critics will, no doubt, lavish all their random panegyric on it.

- ‘ “ *Now Charles his bread by daily labours sought,
 And this his solace, ‘ so Corregio wrought.
 Alas, poor youth ! however great his name,
 And humble thine, thy fortune was the same ;
 Charles drew and painted, and some praise obtain’d
 For care and pains ; but little more was gain’d ;
 Fame was his hope, and he contempt display’d
 For approbation, when ’twas coolly paid :
 His daily tasks he call’d a waste of mind,
 Vex’d at his fate, and angry with mankind :
 ‘ Thus have the blind to merit ever done,
 And genius mourn’d for each neglected son.’
 Charles murmur’d thus, and angry and alone
 Half breathed the curse, and half suppress’d the groan ;
 Then still more sullen grew, and still more proud,
 Fame so refused he to himself allow’d,
 Crowds in contempt he held, and all to him was crowd.*
- ‘ “ *If aught on earth, the youth his mother loved,
 And, at her death, to distant scenes removed.*
- ‘ “ *Years past away, and where he lived, and how,
 Was then unknown — indeed we know not now ;
 But once at twilight walking up and down,
 In a poor alley of the mighty town,
 Where, in her narrow courts and garrets, hide
 The grieving sons of genius, want, and pride,
 I met him musing : sadness I could trace,
 And conquer’d hope’s meek anguish, in his face.
 See him I must : but I with ease address’d,
 And neither pity nor surprise express’d ;
 I strove both grief and pleasure to rest rain,
 But yet I saw that I was giving pain.
 He said, with quick’ning pace, as loth to hold
 A longer converse, that ‘ the day was cold,
 That he was well, that I had scarcely light
 To aid my steps,’ and bade me then good night !
 I saw him next where he had lately come,
 A silent pauper in a crowded room ;
 I heard his name, but he conceal’d his face,
 To his sad mind his misery was disgrace :
 In vain I strove to combat his disdain
 Of my compassion — ‘ Sir, I pray refrain ;’
 For I had left my friends and stepp’d aside,
 Because I fear’d his unrelenting pride.*
- ‘ “ *He then was sitting on a workhouse-bed,
 And on the naked boards reclined his head,
 Around were children with incessant cry,
 And near was one, like him, about to die ;
 A broken chair’s deal bottom held the store
 That he required — he soon would need no more ;
 A yellow tea-pot, standing at his side,
 From its half spout the cold black tea supplied.*

“ *Hithe*

"Hither, it seem'd, the fainting man was brought, but
Found without food, — it was no longer sought."

The sort of antithesis, or rather of pun, in this last line very frequent in the present author, sometimes happy enough, and rising to the epigrammatic terseness of Young: almost always wanting the elegance of that writer in his re-pointed couplets, and often descending to the poorest tricks of paronomasia.

When Mr. Crabbe deals in *general* description, he occasionally hits the true tone of poetry. Thus, in the preceding tract, such a couplet as

'Where, in her narrow courts and garrets, hide
The grieving sons of genius, want, and pride,'

affords us, at least, incomparably more pleasure than his 'yellow tea-pot,' and 'cold black tea;' although these last furnish a good hint or two for the school of Wilkie. As, however, to the conclusion of the picture that we give the highest praise; and we may add that the capricious usage of the great is morally satirized in this story;

"Poor Charles! unnoticed by thy titled friend,
Thy days had calmly past, in peace thine end:
Led by thy patron's vanity astray,
Thy own misled thee in thy trackless way,
Urging thee on by hope absurd and vain,
Where never peace or comfort smiled again!

"Once more I saw him, when his spirits fail'd,
And my desire to aid him then prevail'd;
He shew'd a softer feeling in his eye,
And watch'd my looks, and own'd the sympathy:
'Twas now the calm of wearied pride; so long
As he had strength was his resentment strong,
But in such place, with strangers all around,
And they such strangers, to have something found
Allied to his own heart, an early friend,
One, only one, who would on him attend,
To give and take a look! at this his journey's end;
One link, however slender, of the chain
That held him where he could not long remain;
The one sole interest! — No, he could not now
Retain his anger; Nature knew not how;
And so there came a softness to his mind,
And he forgave the usage of mankind.
His cold long fingers now were press'd to mine,
And his faint smile of kinder thoughts gave sign;
His lips moved often as he tried to lend
His words their sound; and softly whisper'd 'friend!'
Not without comfort in the thought express'd
By that calm look with which he sank to rest."

As a relief to his scenes of moral sadness, Mr. Crabbe often refreshes us in these volumes with some lively natural description, and with the cheering effect which the various appearances of nature produce on a young and susceptible mind. Thus, in Richard's account of his own early adventures, we have the subjoined animating and touching picture:

- “ I loved to walk where none had walk'd before,
About the rocks that ran along the shore ;
Or far beyond the sight of men to stray,
And take my pleasure when I lost my way ;
For then 'twas mine to trace the hilly heath,
And all the mossy moor that lies beneath :
Here had I favourite stations, where I stood
And heard the murmurs of the ocean-flood,
With not a sound beside, except when flew
Aloft the lapwing, or the gray curlew,
Who with wild notes my fancied power defied;
And mock'd the dreams of solitary pride.
- “ I loved to stop at every creek and bay
Made by the river in its winding way,
And call to memory — not by marks they bare,
But by the thoughts that were created there.
- “ Pleasant it was to view the sea-gulls strive
Against the storm, or in the ocean dive,
With eager scream, or when they dropping gave
Their closing wings to sail upon the wave :
Then as the winds and waters raged around,
And breaking billows mix'd their deafening sound ;
They on the rolling deep securely hung,
And calmly rode the restless waves among.
Nor pleased it less around me to behold,
Far up the beach, the yesty sea-foam roll'd ;
Or from the shore upborn, to see on high,
Its frothy flakes in wild confusion fly :
While the salt spray that clashing billows form,
Gave to the taste a feeling of the storm.
- “ Thus, with my favourite views, for many an hour
Have I indulged the dreams of princely power ;
When the mind, wearied by excursions bold,
The fancy jaded, and the bosom cold,
Or when those wants, that will on kings intrude,
Or evening-fears, broke in on solitude ;
When I no more my fancy could employ,
I left in haste what I could not enjoy,
And was my gentle mother's welcome boy.”

We should now advert to one of the most finished the work, and present our readers with an am

from the principal adventure in the life of George: but mere want of room obliges us to refer them to the seventh book, where they will find a description of the fate of an "unfortunate" female, which has perhaps seldom if ever been exceeded in moral or in pathetic effect. With regard to the hero of the story, (George,) we are indeed disposed to address him in those impressive words of Horace:

—— " *ah miser !*
Quantâ laboras in Charybdi;
Digne, puer, meliore flammâ !"

Mr. Crabbe certainly excels in the humorous, as well as in the tender; and we are inclined to think, indeed, that his success would be still more perfect (more *uniform* we are certain it would be,) in the first than in the latter style of poetry. A selection of circumstances, a delicacy of touch and taste both in their colouring and their grouping, are surely requisite for the full effect of a *pathetic* description: but *humour* will be felt where broader strokes, and wilder composition altogether, are adopted; and the mixture of sham prose with real verse, — the Hudibrastic mixture in a word, — will here rather heighten than diminish the whole result. Let Mr. Crabbe forgive us for suggesting this to him; and still farther for taking up the epithet *Hudibrastic* again, and asking him whether he does not consider the present age to be particularly in want of *another Hudibras*? In that case, who is so calculated as himself to do justice to this great theme; to dissipate, by the powerful *flail of ridicule*, the chaff of religious doctrine that floats among us, and to separate it from the wheat? We call on him to throw his great talents into this useful, this worthy, channel.

That he thinks with ourselves on the subject of the overflowing methodism of the day, his works furnish abundant proofs; and that he has the peculiar tact to render his exposure of this melancholy absurdity very effectual, we could also prove by ample quotation. Let our readers turn to the '*Maid's Story*,' and there they will see strong indications of the admirable power in question; the power of sneering even superstitious folly out of countenance!

' At night we pray'd — I dare not say a word
 Of our devotion, it was so absurd;
 And very pious upon Biddy's part,
 But mine were all effusions of the heart;
 While she her angels call'd their peace to shed,
 And bless the corners of our little bed.'

The following complete picture of the *methodistical* character must not be withholden from our readers, and we earnestly exhort them to apply so infallible a *touchstone* to any of that sect, whose purposes it may seem to answer to attempt *conversion* (or, rather, *perversion*) within their circle.

‘ The Maid’ speaks:

—— ‘ ’twas a mother’s spleen ; and she indeed
Was sick, and sad, and had of comfort need ;
 I watch’d the way her anxious spirit took,
 And often found her musing o’er a book ;
 She changed her dress, her church, her priest, her prayer,
 Joined a new sect, and sought her comforts there ;
 Some strange coarse people came, and were so free
 In their addresses, they offended me ;
 But my mamma threw all her pride away —
 More humble she as more assuming they.
 “ And what,” they said, as having power, “ are now
 The inward conflicts ? do you strive ? and how ? ”
 Themselves confessing thoughts so new and wild,
 I thought them like the visions of a child.
 “ Could we,” they ask, “ our best good deeds condemn ?
 And did we long to touch the garment’s hem ?
 And was it so with us ? for so it was with them.”

‘ A younger few assumed a softer part,
 And tried to shake the fortress of my heart ;
 To this my pliant mother lent her aid,
 And wish’d the winning of her erring maid :
 I was constrain’d her female friends to hear ;
 But suffer’d not a bearded convert near :
 Though more than one attempted, with their whine,
 And “ Sister ! sister ! how that heart of thine ? ”
 But this was freedom I for ever check’d :
 Mine was a heart no brother could affect.

‘ But, “ would I hear the preacher, and receive
 The dropping dew of his discourse at eve ?
 The soft, sweet words ? ” I gave two precious hours
 To hear of gifts and graces, helps and powers ;
 When a pale youth, who should dismiss the flock,
 Gave to my bosom an electric shock.
 While in that act he look’d upon my face
 As one in that all-equalizing place :
 Nor, though he sought me, would he lay aside
 Their cold, dead freedom, or their dull, sad pride.

‘ Of his conversion he with triumph spoke,
 Before he orders from a bishop took :
 Then how his father’s anger he had braved ;
 And, safe himself, his erring neighbours saved.

Me

He rejoiced a sister to behold
 Among the members of his favourite fold;
 He had not sought me, the availing call
 Demanded all his love, and had it all;
 But, now, thus met, it must be Heaven's design.
 Indeed, I thought, it never shall be mine;
 Yes, we must wed. He was not rich: and I
 Had of the earthly good a mean supply;
 But it sufficed. Of his conversion then
 He told, and labours in converting men;
 For he was chosen all their bands among —
 Another Daniel! honour'd, though so young.

He called me sister: shew'd me that he knew
 What I possess'd; and told what it would do;
 My looks, I judge, express'd my full disdain;
 But it was given to the man in vain:
 They preach till they are proud, and pride disturbs the brain.
 This the youth once timid, mild, polite?
 Now odious now, and sick'ning to the sight!
 Proud that he sees, and yet so truly blind,
 With all this blight and mildew on the mind!

Amazed, the solemn creature heard me vow
 That I was not disposed to take him now.

"Then, art thou changed, fair maiden? changed thy heart?"
 answered, "No; but I perceive thou art."

Some of the touches in this picture are inimitable.

'Their cold, dead freedom, or their dull, sad pride,'

is to be for ever remembered as the prominent features of
 ofistic manners.

It is full time to turn to Mr. Crabbe's second volume; and
 and we cannot linger with proportionable prolixity in
 'Hall' to hear the second series of its 'Tales.'

The story of *Sir Owen Dale*, who, in revenge for the
 story of a lady whom he has wooed, induces a young
 man to court her, with the generous aim of breaking her
 heart, is extravagant and idle enough: but the tale intitled
 'My *Day has Danger*' is in many parts excellent. The be-
 lying, as usual, is rather *prosy*: but both the humour and
 pathos heighten and deepen as we proceed.

A fickle youth, already engaged to be married, pays a visit
 to a nobleman's house, where he becomes enamoured afresh
 of the niece of the steward. This worthy personage, and
 wife, the *stewardess*, suffer the young parties to meet un-
 expectedly; and, even before the false lover has declared
 himself, they come to overwhelm him with the good news of
 their

their consent ! The scene is truly comic, and we regret that we cannot extract it. Our opinion that Mr. Crabbe's real *forte* lies in the *humorous* is strongly confirmed by this passage. The sad reflections of the hero, when he is engaged again in this second quarter, are beautifully described : but is not the preceding ludicrous scene a decided restraint on our entire sympathy with the tenderness that follows ? This, too, we should rejoice to select : but we must deny both to ourselves and to our readers that pleasure.

Book the Fourteenth.

*' Richard one month had with his brother been,
And had his guests, his friends, his favourites seen ;
Had heard the rector, who with decent force,
But not of action, aided his discourse.'*

Cum multis aliis, which any versifier, however inferior his *cast* might be, would be perfectly competent to indite, *stans pede in uno*, to the amount of a hundred in an hour.

In the major part of this tale, ycleped '*The Natural Death of Love*,' we do not perceive much merit, except of the comic kind ; and why the two characters should hold a dialogue under the names of 'Henry and Emma,' unless to excite a somewhat odious comparison, we are at a loss to imagine. The conclusion of the story is beautiful, and does equal honour to the talents and the feelings of the author ; who, indeed, on many occasions, has shewn a power of painting the true deep tenderness of conjugal affection, with a force and a variety altogether his own.

We are compelled, though with great reluctance, to pass rapidly over the remainder of this volume. '*Gretna Green*' is a disgusting picture of human folly and wickedness : but, no doubt, such medicines have their effect where strong disorders prevail. '*Lady Barbara, or the Ghost*,' is a very extraordinary tale, powerfully interesting, and painfully distressing too, in its catastrophe. How great is the author's success in describing that most melancholy of human feelings, the decline and change of the affections ! but, surely, this subject at least is too sacred to have any ludicrous images and low familiarities mixed with it. We must again call on our "*whispering dæmon*" to do his work. — '*The Widow*' is one of those happy pictures of common life, which are calculated to throw strong ridicule on the affectation of delicate feelings in vulgar minds.

'*Ellen*' is in parts very affecting, but in parts revoltingly ridiculous. The manner in which the long-absent lover is described as *calling* on his mistress, (and *sending up* his

name by the servant!) might be selected as a specimen of the triumphant burlesque on this modern style of "*Conversation Poetry*." We cannot but be very angry with a writer, who so woefully debases his own superiority as to mix the most incongruous feelings together, and to excite in us the most genuine tears and the broadest grin at the same instant. If this be not to destroy all distinctions, "*confundere sacra profanis*," in the imagination, we know not what excess deserves the character of that confusion.

The story of '*William Bailey*' is not, we think, so good in its moral effect as the great majority of Mr. Crabbe's productions. Here is a virtuous attachment broken off by the subsequent immodesty of the female; and, not contented with destroying all the *romance* of love, by representing, after the lapse of years, the offending beauty as the fat landlady at '*The Fleece*,' the poet makes the poor tame contented lover unite himself to his worthless mistress, and actually become her deserving and happy husband! These may be *ale-house politics*: but certainly we see neither poetic justice nor manly feeling in the composition.

'*The Cathedral Walk*' is a good exposure of ghost-stories; after which, however, we suspect the author to have more than a Johnsonian hankering.

The tale of '*Smugglers and Poachers*' is in this poet's happiest and most original manner. Here is, almost, the tremendous vigour of "*The Hall of Justice*;" and all that we have to regret (a regret, we fear, that the growing *democracy of poetical taste* will nearly confine to ourselves) is the inveterate fondness for the *vulgar violent* and the *vulgar pathetic*, which bids fair to place all our heroes and heroines among the menial ranks of society, and to introduce a sort of *High Life below stairs* into the best efforts of the imagination.

We must find room for the following nervous description:

Now met the lawless clan, — in secret met,
And down at their convivial board were set;
The plans in view to past adventures led,
And the past conflicts present anger bred;
They sigh'd for pleasures gone, they groan'd for heroes dead:
Their ancient stores were rifled, — strong desires
Awaked, and wine rekindled latent fires.

It was a night such bold desires to move,
Strong winds and wintry torrents fill'd the grove;
The crackling boughs that in the forest fell,
The cawing rooks, the cur's affrighten'd yell;

The

The scenes above the wood, the floods below,
 Were mix'd, and none the single sound could know;
 "Loud blow the blasts," they cried, "and call us as they
 blow."

' In such a night — and then the heroes told
 What had been done in better times of old;
 How they had conquer'd all opposed to them,
 By force in part, in part by stratagem;
 And as the tales inflamed the fiery crew,
 What had been done they then prepared to do;
 "'Tis a last night!" they said — the angry blast
 And roaring floods seem'd answering "'Tis a last!"'

"*Cedite Germani Prædones, cedite Galli;*"

or, more properly, *Gaëli*.

"Yield, German *Robbers*; Scotch *Marauders*, yield;
 And thou, great *Corsair*, quit the plunder'd field."

We will match Mr. Crabbe's 'Smugglers and Poachers' against them all: nay, we will throw "Peter Bell," the pedlar of Mr. Wordsworth, even in his best and most snivelling moments, into the opposite scale, and yet maintain our opinion.

For one instant, however, we would ask, where is the moral use, or where is the poetic probability, (if the former be too serious a question,) of investing such rascallions with all the dignity of the loftiest passions, or setting them forth with all the eloquence of the most thrilling descriptions?

The most touching book of the whole is, according to our opinion, the last; and here we part, in pain indeed, with Mr. Crabbe. May we meet again; and under still happier auspices! — The mixed feelings in Richard's mind, on the day of his intended departure from his friendly brother; the natural touches of disappointment in not meeting with every thing about him as warm as his own heart; and then the sudden discovery that George's fraternal affection is still superior to his own; are altogether really charming; — and the gentle retired wife, in the distant back-ground of the picture, completes the magic of the whole scene. We must leave it to our readers; and, summoning all our courage, and gulping down all our immediate feelings, we will once more beg this author to tell us why *he* (of all men) publishes such lines as

'*To seek the firm of Clutterbuck and Co.'?*

ART. II. *Italy, its Agriculture, &c.* from the French of Mons. Chateaueux, being Letters written by him in Italy, in the Years 1812 and 1813. Translated by Edward Rigby, Esq. M.D. F.L. and H.S. 8vo. pp. 358. Hunter. 1819.

WE have here a book of considerable interest and originality, the author being a man of education and talents; and, though he is not slightly impregnated with those fantastic views which are so common among Parisians, and which display themselves in a superabundance of effusions and apostrophes, yet such is the solid value of his information that he succeeds in obtaining the forgiveness of even the more severe part of his readers. He describes himself as having visited Italy at an early age, and as much less struck on his second journey with the appearance of the Alps, the great roads lately opened having in a manner removed the natural barrier, and deprived the mountains of their terrific aspect. The object of M. de C.'s expedition was considerably different from that of the majority of observers. 'I shall not,' he says, 'advert to those parts of Italy which have been described by so many travellers. I shall say nothing either of buildings, monuments, or cities, or of the arts by which they have been decorated. I will give its rural history; I will inform you how they cultivate the fields, how they get in their harvests.' Nothing is wanting to gratify the expectation excited by this fair promise, except a better method in the arrangement of his materials; M. de C. being accustomed to record his impressions at the moment of their occurrence, and taking very little pains to collect them under general heads. Such humble aids as an index or table of contents he deems quite superfluous; and we, like all who aim at obtaining a clear idea of the work, have been under the necessity of making a brief outline for ourselves, thus:

Arrival at Turin in May, 1812: agricultural observations in Piedmont in July: the same in the west of Lombardy in September: in Tuscany in May, 1813: in the Campagna di Roma in June and July. These are followed by the author's visit to Naples in July and August, 1813: by his return to Rome, and a tour to the Polesino, or vicinity of the Lower Po, and the central part of Lombardy, in October; after which, proceeding rather rapidly to Swisserland, he appropriates his concluding letters to a series of general remarks on the agriculture and statistics of Italy.

Lombardy. — In a warm climate, irrigation is the grand source of productiveness, and Lombardy has the double advantage of a fertile soil and a copious supply of water: the latter is afforded

afforded by the streams flowing southward from the Alps, while the level nature of the territory admits of the dissemination of small canals to an unrivalled extent, so as to form in a manner a vast net-work over the face of the country. The principal canal in a district serves the double purpose of inland-navigation, and of conveying water to the irrigating canals: ranges of ozers being planted along the banks to give tenacity and firmness to the soil. The farms in Lombardy are small, varying from 20 to 60 English acres; the fields, or rather partitions of land, are only of two, three, or four acres, and are for the most part laid out in pasture; the returns from cheese and the sale of cattle being more profitable than from tillage. The common rotation during the first five years is hemp, oats, wheat, maize, and again wheat; after which the ground is kept in grass during fifteen years; the grass (such are the effects of warmth and irrigation) being cut and carried four times in a year! Farms in this country are generally held on *metairie*, a tenure formerly common in France, and according to which the tenant pays no rent, but divides his returns with the landlord; furnishing the labour of himself and family in return for the use of the land. The gross produce of an English acre in Lombardy is from 7l. to 9l.; which, according to the customary mode of calculating the returns of pasture-land, leaves about 3l. for rent,—equal, making allowance for the difference of money between England and Italy, to 4l. 10s. per English acre. Ploughing in this country is performed not by horses but by oxen; and the agriculturists are extremely backward both as to implements and their manner of employing them: in fact, the clumsiness of the ploughs, of the waggons, and of all kind of iron work, on the Continent, can be conceived only by those who have inspected them. The large return obtained is consequently due to physical causes, and is greatest in that species of culture which requires least labour, we mean Rice, the crops of which afford a rent of 5l. or 5l. 10s. per acre. The plan here, as in the rice-grounds of Carolina and Bengal, is to divide the ground into small inclosures, laying them all under water, and keeping them in that state until the crop is nearly ripe. The great objection to rice-culture arises from its insalubrity; agues, and other more serious complaints, being engendered in the vicinity of these stagnant waters. To such a length has this effect taken place in Lombardy, that the government has prohibited for the present the farther extension of rice-grounds; and such ought not to be permitted except under very explicit regulations; among others, that of the cultivator sleeping at a distance from

from the inundated tract, and occupying, if possible, an elevated spot.

M. de C. attempts a parallel between the agriculture of England and that of Italy; not from an impression that Italy approaches to our country in agricultural skill, but for the sake of exhibiting a contrast as striking as can be afforded by any two countries in Europe. The *metayers* of Italy follow a very simple course, and very seldom change their manner either of living or of cultivating: they possess no capital, incur no debts, and in fact have no payments to make. They are assured of a home, and of a support by the nature of their tenure, but the certainty of this resource removes all idea of extra labour, and is productive of a great loss of time; the tenant and his family confining their exertions to the limited extent of the farm, and enjoying their leisure at every interval in the cultivation.

The scale, in which the population in Italy is classed, is not the same as that in England. Here there are but few day labourers, and a small number who hire farms. Almost the whole of these classes is included in that of the *metayers*. They contract immediately with the proprietors, who almost alone form the class of capitalists. A fifth of the population, alone, supplies the manufacturing and consuming classes. Agriculture, instead of constantly transferring to other classes of society its superabundant population, on the contrary, retains it. The result is, that, one after another, all the classes are absorbed; and that there is never, as in England, a surplus of population, constantly unemployed, and at liberty to engage in some new undertaking, to go to sea, or to emigrate.

The number and arrangement of the population in Italy have been, I believe, a long time, stationary, and they will be so still, for nothing threatens this order of things; it may continue indefinitely without giving any inquietude to the government. The whole of this numerous, of this immense class, is lodged, clothed, and fed with absolute certainty, and by the very nature of its occupation. It is nearly equally spread over the whole surface of the country. It is happy in its freedom from care, in the beauty of the climate, and in the fertility of the soil. The manufacturing class in Italy, though small in number, often suffers. It is so deficient in skill, that notwithstanding the most favourable circumstances, it does not manufacture enough to exclude foreign articles, in respect to which it cannot attempt a competition. The Italians have relinquished their manufactures of silk and their fine wools. They have, in vain, attempted to manufacture their cotton. From the most exact calculations, they prefer selling the surplus of their gross produce, and buying, in exchange, the manufactures they stand in need of. There will soon remain, in Italy, only artificers and retail dealers. Agriculture is becoming their

their only manufacture, and will almost alone contribute to keep up the public wealth of Italy.'

Those among our countrymen, who still persist in an admiration of small farms, would have been delighted in performing a tour in Tuscany with M. de C.: since, instead of 50 or 60 acres, as in Lombardy, they would have found the occupancies in Tuscany averaging only from six or eight to ten acres. Here is little grass-land, the greatest part being under tillage; maize, wheat, and beans are the principal crops, but a single pair of oxen are adequate to the ploughing work on 10 or 12 of these diminutive tenures. The system of *metairie* has here an undisputed sway, and the consequence is that age after age passes without improving the humble circumstances of the peasantry.

Maremma. — This name, derived from the Latin *Mare*, is applied to a very long tract, extending along the western shore of Italy from Pisa on the north to Terracina on the south, a length of fully 200 English miles; its breadth, varying from 20 to 30 or even 35 miles, is greatest in the Campagna di Roma. One of the most interesting parts of M. de C.'s book is the description of this Campagna, a territory once studded with villages and towns, but now too unhealthy for the residence of any except persons immediately engaged in agriculture. It is divided into very large farms, a tract of nearly 2500 square miles containing hardly 250 estates, and the lessees, or rather dealers in land, (*Mercanti di tenuti*), not exceeding 80 in number. These *Mercanti* are men of capital, who live in Rome, where they keep their accounts and issue instructions to the *fattori* or agents residing on the estate. Each property has a *casale*, or large unfurnished building resembling a *chateau*, and containing apartments for the upper servants, lofts for the corn and hay, and stables for the horses. All the retainers of the estate, whether shepherds or labourers, belong to the mountains, and leave their families there on coming to work in the insalubrious plains. The overseers, in like manner, leave their families in Rome or the neighbouring cities; so that no care is bestowed on gardens or plantations in the Campagna, every thing being fetched from the adjacent towns: the only luxury in this depopulated district is the command of horses for riding.

'Neither a *fattoré*, a *capo* (overseer), or even a cattle driver, will ever think of going on foot. Always on horseback, the officers armed with muskets, and the shepherds with lances, they gallop over the plains, and there are always horses in the stables saddled and ready to go out. Every person on the farm has two assigned to him.

Some of these horses are old servants, and are employed to serve as examples to the younger ones; but the greater part consists of the latter, which the keepers amuse themselves in training, and which are intended for sale when they are used to the bit and saddle. Those which are designed for draught are sold in their wild state. In Rome there are coachmen well skilled in breaking them.—

‘As we were on horseback, the fattore led us to the fields where the harvest had just begun. At a distance, on the sea-coast, I could distinguish large breadths of corn, of a deep yellow colour, which seemed to extend a great way on the undulations of the soil. At length the reapers appeared like an army ranged in order of battle, having their chiefs on horseback, with lances in their hands, in a firm attitude. We passed many carts, drawn by large oxen, and laden with bread, which was going to feed this army. Soon I saw before me a long line, composed of a host of harvest men, embracing, in its vast extent, an immense breadth of corn, which silently fell under the edge of their numerous sickles. Twelve of these chiefs were on horseback behind these lines, watching and animating them. At our approach they all, at once, set up a loud shout; it made the air ring, and the whole solitude tremble. It was the salute of the workmen to the master.

‘The carts soon after stopped under some oaks, which Providence had preserved, in the middle of the plain, to afford shade to the harvest men. A signal being given they quitted their work, and this long troop filed off before us; there were nearly as many women as men; they all came from the Abruzzes. They were bathed in sweat; the sun was intolerable; the men were good figures, but the women were frightful; they had been some days from the mountains, and the foul air had begun to attack them. Two only had yet taken the fever, but they told me, from that time a great number would be seized every day, and that by the end of harvest, the troop would be reduced at least one-half. What then, I said, becomes of these unhappy creatures? They give them a morsel of bread and send them back. But whither do they go? They take the way to the mountains; some remain on the road, some die, but others arrive, suffering under misery and inanition, to come again the following year.

‘The repast of this day was a feast; to celebrate his arrival, the master had purchased at Genzano two cart loads of water melons, to be distributed among the reapers, with the bread, which, in common, is their only food: the expressive looks of these miserable beings were fixed on these large melons, and I cannot describe the joy painted in them at the instant the large knives cut into the beautiful fruit, exposed its blood-red colour, and let out a sweet perfume and a cooling juice.

‘The reapers have three meals every day, by which their work is divided into two parts. They are allowed two hours in the middle of the day for sleep; there is no danger attending this, but when the dew and the night have cooled the earth, they still lie upon it, sleeping upon moist grass, in the midst of sulphureous exhalations.

exhalations. They lose, they say, too much time, in going back to sleep under the shelter of the casale, sometimes at a great distance in these large farms.'—

'Further off some hundred wild cows seemed, undetermined, on first seeing us, whether they should attack us or save themselves by going to the wood; they determined on the latter, and the herd set off on all fours, preceded by the heifers, and followed unwillingly by the bulls, which galloped heavily behind the herd.—

'These cows are not kept to give milk; the sale of calves, and that of their mothers when six or seven years old, produce their only profit upon them; but as their keep costs but little, this produce is not unimportant on the farm. The cows are estimated at forty livres a head. A hundred cows, with their followers, thus produce four thousand livres. There are many farms which have more than a thousand.

'When we were near the wood we were shewn great numbers of pigs, some of which concealed themselves in the shade, and others fed in the plain. There were two thousand of these animals.'—

'There were nearly four hundred horses on the farm, of which a hundred, at least, are trained and used by the keepers of the herds. The rest, of different ages, were wild, and used only in threshing corn.'

In addition to these formidable numbers, there are on this property 4000 sheep, the chief part of which are sent in May to the mountains, and do not return to the *Campagna* till November. No attempt at improvement is made by the *Mercanti di tenuti* or their agents; the only change consists in the same persons becoming from time to time the lessees of additional estates, so that the whole territory is passing gradually into fewer hands. The unfortunate depopulation of this fertile tract is attributed to various causes; first to the ravages of war in the decline of the Roman empire; and next to the insalubrity produced by a diminution of population in a country in which, of all others, draining and cultivation are requisite to health. As the sickness does not prevail in winter, many persons are inclined to impute it chiefly to the sudden transitions from heat to cold, and to imprudent exposure on the part of the peasantry. Be this as it may, it does not seem owing (at least not in any great degree) to mis-government, since the healthy parts of the States of the Church exhibit a culture nearly as active and productive as that of Tuscany. Of the herdsmen, who quit the mountains of Abruzzo to settle here, many lose their health, and some even their lives: a part, however, become accustomed to the *Mal-aria*, and remain regularly on the lands; receiving for their services not wages, but their provisions, and the privilege of pasturing their little flocks with those of the lessee. The objects of their care are very various: corn is

cultivated in the most favourable situations; the woods are stocked with swine, and the marshes with buffaloes. — The estate described by M. de Chateaufieux in the preceding extract contains about 12,000 English acres, and is rented for nearly 5000l. sterling. The regular expences are not heavy, but occasional losses occur from mortality among the cattle: still the average profit is high, being (p. 162.) from 1000l. to 2000l. a-year. This is a large sum to be extracted from a country which, to the eye, seems little better than a wilderness: but every department of the property is on a great scale, and the management of the whole is simple and economical.

This account of the agriculture of the Roman territory is followed (pp. 162, 163.) by some remarks on a less acceptable theme, — the banditti who infest it. To extirpate them would appear to be an almost hopeless undertaking, as they are not mere companies of robbers without “house or home,” but a part of the resident population of the Sabine and Abruzzo mountains; who scour the country in disguise, prepare a sudden attack from a retired spot, and disappear on the advance of the police: they are in fact no others than villagers, or cottagers, who employ a part of the year in labour, and are ready at the command of a leader either to take the field or to disperse.

South of Italy. — M. de C. makes it a rule to avoid enlarging on topics discussed by former travellers, and, when at Naples, forsakes the gaieties of the capital to wander in the neighbouring country, and to luxuriate among the beauties of nature. In one of these excursions, he left the city at break of day, arrived at the long subterraneous passage called the *Grotto* of Pausilippo, emerged from this gloomy avenue, and proceeded to Puzzoli, a town composed of little else than huts and ruins. Next day, he visited the *grotto* of the Sibyl, but saw little of the magnitude or horror conveyed in the description of Virgil; finding only a subterranean gallery cut out of the solid rock, and having on its side several passages through which the traveller enters into chambers still decorated with elegant sculpture. The next object of his attention was the remains of Baia or Baia.

‘The appearance of these places so boasted of by the ancients surprises, at this time, by the disproportion of their extent, to the distinction they obtained in the prosperous days of Rome. In reading the history of that period, one would suppose that the shores of Baia must have included a vast territory, to have been the residence of all those Romans who had such pleasure in passing their time there. But in going over these ruins, we are

astonished how little space the ancients allotted to the comfort of their habitations; they lived almost, constantly, in the open air, or in their gardens, but even these gardens were only parterres, decorated with great care, and remarkably confined. The entire space formerly occupied by the whole country of Baïea, might be included in a moderate sized park of England or France.

‘ Our imagination is so accustomed to consider every thing belonging to the Romans as something colossal, that it remains confounded at the diminutiveness, not to say meanness, of the vestiges which time has left of them: we must have seen them to believe it, such is our incredulity. The genius of the Romans is not displayed in their civil and religious buildings, they are symmetrically designed and finished with great art; but magnificence is seen only in their aqueducts and amphitheatres.

‘ The Romans had so little taste for the gigantic in architecture, that all the temples of ancient Rome do not equal, in mass, the single church of St. Peter. The Appian way was only nine feet wide; it was in the decoration, and not in the size of their houses, that the ancients displayed their vanity.’

Our readers have lately seen the observations of a traveller on the excavations of Pompeia, as far as they were carried in 1797 *: but M. de Chateaufvieux’s visit was much more recent, and contains some very interesting particulars.

‘ I took the road to Portici, and I did not stop until I arrived at Pompeia, where I spent the remainder of the day. — Within the last four years, the digging has been much extended. They have discovered an entire new quarter, the buildings in which being much ornamented, indicate the residence of richer proprietors than those of the houses previously discovered. They have found a second gate of the city. With a few years more labour, Pompeia will rise completely from the tomb, in which it has been buried so many ages.

‘ There are no ruins in Italy, nor, probably, in the world, which excite so much interest as those of Pompeia, for there is nothing conjectural in what we see there: the imagination has nothing to fill up, and nothing to suppose. Every thing remains there as the Romans left it; every thing indicates their habits. We live with them, we use their furniture, we eat at their tables, we view their drawings, we read their manuscripts. The time which has elapsed since the day when Pliny met his death there, seems to be less, and it might have been yesterday.

‘ I remained a long while looking at the workmen, who were digging. They had just gotten into the inside of a house, and every stroke of the spade made a discovery. — They discovered a wall; it was painted in fresco, beautiful arabesques gradually appeared. May not these medallions explain some of the secrets of antiquity? But our expectation, in this instance, was disappointed; they represented only bacchants and cupids.

* See the notice of M. de Castellan’s letters in our Appendix.

... The work went on; in emptying a room of the ashes with which it was filled, we came to the lower part of it, and the precautions were increased, as they expected to find furniture and some valuable articles. The trowel touched a hard and resisting body. The workman removed the ashes very slowly, and he perceived a bronze ornament. Beautiful carved leaves rose from the ground; they adhered to branches, having fruit upon them, which were oranges. The stem of the tree rested in a vase of the same metal; it served as a pedestal: this bronze, of an elegant form, was only a candelabra, in the fruit of which were inserted sockets, which diffused around the light of twenty lamps. Art has produced nothing more natural, or more graceful, than this candelabra, whose re-appearance I witnessed after two thousand years, as clean and as polished as when it first came out of the hands of the workmen.

‘On the side of this bronze, and on the same pedestal, was a bust of Marius; I was gratified at being present at discoveries of so much interest; but night put a stop to the work; the workmen, as well as the antiquarians, went away, and I followed them with regret.’

It would be easy to gratify our readers by farther quotations, but we are admonished by our limits that it is time to bring our report to a close. The fantastic notions, to which we alluded as occasionally characteristic of M. de C., are exemplified in various passages, such as (pp. 131. 133.) his apostrophe to the Valley of Albano; and in his giving to the mode of culture practised along the south declivity of the Appennines the name of *Canaaneeune*, as if the practice of supporting the sloping soil by mounds of stone or earth were not as applicable to Savoy as to the Holy Land. The translation comes from the pen of Dr. Rigby, a Norwich physician now descending into the vale of years, and known to the world by a number of publications partly medical, partly economical, the last of which (noticed in our Journal for March 1814) related to the management of work-houses. Much as we respect the benevolent views of Dr. R., we cannot pay him any high encomium as a translator: he expatiates in his preface very unnecessarily on the value of agriculture, but makes no attempts (as we might have expected from a writer of his experience) to correct the deficient method of the original. This, it may be said, is seldom done by any translator: but a similar apology can scarcely be urged with regard to a slavishly literal and in some measure incorrect mode of rendering French phrases; such as p. 143. *se sauver*, ‘save themselves;’ p. 293., ‘had the good feeling to divide,’ instead of had the good sense to divide; p. 272., ‘a good pasture,’ for good pasture; p. 329., ‘manumised’ for manumitted, &c.

ART. III. *Facts and Observations respecting Canada, and the United States of America : affording a comparative View of the Inducements to Emigration presented in those Countries. To which is added, an Appendix of practical Instructions to Emigrant Settlers in the British Colonies. By Charles F. Grece, Member of the Montreal and Quebec Agricultural Societies ; and Author of Essays on Husbandry, addressed to the Canadian Farmers. 8vo. pp. 172. 7s. Boards. Harding. 1819.*

THE object of the present volume is explained in the title; and in the preface Mr. Grece informs us that he has resided sixteen years in Canada, partly in a trackless forest, and partly in a cleared and populous district of the country : dedicating a great portion of his time to experimental agriculture, with the view of improving the erroneous practice of the Canadian farmers. From experience thus obtained, he considers himself ' enabled to give a circumstantial and detailed account of the various agricultural productions of the Canadian provinces, as well as the expences attending an establishment either on cleared land or in the forests.'

As Mr. G. distinctly avows his wish to direct the tide of emigration from Great Britain and Ireland to Canada, in preference to the United States of America, it may perhaps be right to exercise some degree of caution in admitting the comparative estimates between the two countries ; particularly since he has not had the same opportunities of experience respecting the United States. From a perusal of his work we are inclined to believe that the statements respecting Canada are impartial and correct : but, at the same time, we think, the author is rather disposed to depreciate the natural or local advantages enjoyed by the agriculturists, both in the eastern and the western states of America. Having detailed the great expence and difficulty of emigrating with a family to the western territory, Mr. G. proceeds :

' It has already been shown, that the distance, and consequent expense of transport, are not to be compared. Let us now take a view of the respective climates of the two countries. If Canada is too cold, the Illinois is too hot ; but I contend, that neither the Lower nor the Upper Province can, with propriety, be deemed countries too cold for British constitutions. Much has been said of the cold atmosphere of these parts ; but if the longevity and generally healthful state of the inhabitants may be allowed to furnish any criterion of the salubrity, or otherwise, of the climate, the Canadas are second to no part of this vast continent.

' Near Quebec, it must be confessed, the air is rigorous ; but proceeding towards Upper Canada, the climate may be denominated

minated European, similar to that of the provinces on the Rhine. With respect, however, even to Quebec, it is no mean argument for its general salubrity, that the mother-country has adopted it for the seat of government; which, most assuredly, would not have been the case, had the winters been as severe as some interested writers have asserted. The grape-vine grows wild in both provinces, and always comes to maturity, a circumstance which does not occur in very rigorous climates: indeed, both the Canadas abound with trees, shrubs, plants, herbs, and beautiful foliage, common to climates which are never deemed otherwise than temperate. Melons come to maturity in the open gardens.

‘ With respect to the Illinois territory, it may be observed, that the climate cannot possibly be either so healthful to an European constitution, or so generally favourable to cultivation. Mr. Birkbeck appears to have laboured as much to withhold, as to convey information; and that not only with respect to the difficulties he had to encounter in travelling to the place he fixed upon, but also with respect to the place itself. He has not told us, that the climate of the Wabash country is such as to prevent the most laborious parts of agricultural employments from being performed by Europeans, on account of its heat: he has not told us that the system of slavery must be adopted there, if cultivation be to be carried on to any great extent. There is something very disingenuous in all this. Mr. Birkbeck must have known very well, that the labour of ploughing, harrowing, hoeing, sowing, reaping, housing, &c. could not be well performed, by those who have been accustomed to the air and climate of Great Britain.

‘ How great has been the astonishment of many to find, that this same English *Prairie* is indebted to the sweat, the toil, the groans, the heart-breaking pangs of slavery! Indeed, there is good reason to believe, that the western territory will for ever be subject to that species of labour; the heat of the climate being too great for white men’s constitutions. In the months of July and August the heat is absolutely intolerable.

‘ Not so with respect to the Canadas. During the summer months, there are times when the heat is considerable; but it is at no time what can be fairly called scorching. The rapid progress of vegetation, during those months, is almost beyond credibility.’

After a geographical description of the two Canadas, the author observes that the St. Lawrence affords an easy communication with the Atlantic ocean; an advantage which the Ohio states cannot possibly obtain. He then proceeds to manifest the political and other benefits offered to the Canadian settler.

‘ By the treaty with England, at the conquest in 1759–60, it was stipulated, that the people should retain their own laws, and have

have the entire freedom of their religious institutions guaranteed to them. It is this circumstance that has induced Mr. Sansom and others to denominate Lower Canada a French province; and this he has done from no other apparent motive than to induce a belief in English emigrants, that by removing to that province, they are removing to the company of entire strangers; than which nothing can be more untrue. Both the Canadas possess a constitution similar to that of England; differing, of course, in those points which their situation and peculiar circumstances require. The Canadas are wholly unincumbered by debt; and their civil and religious institutions are not inferior, according to their extent, to those of the mother-country. The Protestants pay no tythes; and the Catholics but very few, which are paid to their own clergy. Direct taxation is hardly felt, being confined to importations: dry goods paying 2½ per cent.; rum from 8d. to 1s. per gallon; brandy, gin, and wines, being productions of foreign states, pay higher duties; so that, as it has been justly observed, "any man with a moderate sum of money has it in his power to acquire a handsome competency."

'Upper Canada, it is true, may with greater propriety be termed English; the English language being generally spoken here, which is not the case in the Lower Province. It has been frequently styled the Garden of North America; but both the provinces, as to soil, scenery, commerce, trade, and government, have a great affinity to each other. The principal towns in the Upper Province are Kingston, York, Newark, and Amhurstburgh. York is the capital: it is seated on the Lake Ontario.

'It should not, however, be concealed, that no part of America offers an asylum for indolence. Every where it requires much active industry, much patient perseverance, to form an establishment, particularly in agricultural pursuits, on lands hitherto in a state of nature. With these prerequisites, and a capital of from 400l. to 1000l., few people in Canada will fail of their object, who have emigrated for the purpose of employing their talents, and their capital, in the acquirement of a decent independence. The gentleman and delicate lady I would advise, by all means, to remain in England, or some other part of Europe.'

We are farther informed that the generosity of government is frequently extended to settlers in a very great degree; and that 'they have been known to give as much as 100 acres of good land on condition of the occupier's building a house and clearing at least six acres, with an actual residence three years prior to being put in possession of the freehold for ever.'

The quantity of land in Canada, in a state of forest, capable of containing and supporting some millions of inhabitants; its quality being equal, if not superior, to any the eastern states, and its price far below that of the western territory. Some lands are held by a tenure similar to English copyholds, subject to an annual rent of one bushel and a half

half of wheat for every hundred acres : but a great part of the land is freehold.

The same feudal customs that prevail in some parts of England are existing in Canada. On the alienation of lands, eight per cent. is paid to the lord of the manor ; and the tenants are compelled to go to the lord's mill to grind the grain for their own consumption, paying a toll of one-fourteenth of the grain that is ground. The Roman Catholics pay tythes to their own clergy on grain and pulse of one-twenty-sixth. No land-tax or assessed taxes are exacted from the farmers of the Lower Province. Freehold land is held by the same tenure as in England.

Farms of 100 acres, with a small log-house, and a barn, thirty acres of the land being previously prepared for cultivation, may be bought for from 150*l.* to 200*l.* In the townships, which are very extensive, and in many parts not more than fifty or eighty miles from the city of Montreal, the great emporium of the Canadas, farms may be bought on the above terms.

Land in a state of nature may be bought for from ten shillings to two pounds per acre, at a credit of from five to ten years, paying six per cent. interest to the owner. This land, to be cleared, and made fit for sowing, will cost about three or four pounds per acre more, in the Lower Province ; in the Upper Province, about six pounds per acre : labour not being so plentiful there.

There are, at present, many opportunities of getting farms, at no great distance from Montreal, where is received the produce of the most remote settlements of Upper Canada, as well as that of the rich and fertile district of which it bears the name. Nor is there, at this time, any difficulty in obtaining farms in the district of the Three Rivers, or of that of Quebec ; but as the district of Montreal possesses a more congenial climate, lying in a more southerly direction, I would, by all means, recommend emigration to those parts.

In Upper Canada, plenty of land may be had at from two to four dollars per acre, in a state of nature, and, with some clearing, for a moderate consideration.

Mr. G. then takes a view of the average expence attending cultivation. The usual price of labour on farms is from 1*s.* 8*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per day, with board ; by the year 15*l.* to 24*l.* for men-servants, and from 6*l.* to 12*l.* for women of all work. He has furnished a table of the expences of entering on a farm of 100 acres, each being four-fifths of an English statute acre ; which estimate comprizes agricultural implements of all kinds, with stock, seeds, servants' wages, and provisions for the family. The total amount is 485*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*, of which 124*l.* must be allowed for provisions ; 104*l.* for wages ; 35*l.* for seeds ; stock 139*l.* ; and the remainder for carts, &c.

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The calculations are made for entering on the farm in May, when the stock may be expected to go abroad: but, if the entry were to take place in November, an allowance must be added for the subsistence of stock. The food for the servants for one year is included, but not the expence of furniture for the house and the maintenance of the master and his family, which depend on the style in which he may wish to live. The different kinds of grain and grasses are next enumerated; and the quantity of seed required for every arpent or acre is stated, from which the following results are deduced:

‘ As a summary of these facts, we may observe, that the returns of crops are as follow: wheat from 25 to 30 bushels; buck wheat, from 15 to 20; rye, 15 to 25; barley, 15 to 30; oats, 32 to 40; Indian corn, from 30 to 50; horse-beans, from 25 to 35; potatoes, from 250 to 400; carrots and parsnips, from 700 to 900; turnips, from 300 to 700 bushels; cabbages, from 18 to 25 tons per acre; and hay, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons per acre.

‘ It is evident, therefore, that the earth, when well managed, is very productive; and the climate, during the summer months, being very warm, the rapid advance of vegetation is almost incredible. I have sown wheat on the 11th of May, harvested it in the month of August following, the produce weighing 65 lbs. per minot.

‘ There are many facilities of improving the land, natural to the country. Lime-stone is abundant, and various other kinds of manure are easily to be obtained.

‘ As soon as the snow is off the ground in the spring, and it is dry enough to harrow, the following seeds are committed to the earth: wheat, horse-beans, pease, barley, carrots, and parsnips. The general practice of the farmers is to prepare the soil in autumn; but the season for agricultural pursuits somewhat varies: at Quebec, the season is six months; at Montreal, seven. Although the season appears short, and the cold intense, the winters are more pleasant and salubrious than those of England, because more uniform, and the air more clear and dry. In Canada, the farmer is never at a loss, from any apprehension of the fickleness of the weather, what kind of labour he should next pursue. Hence, there is but little occasion for the barometer in farm-houses, so common in England.’

Very particular and ample directions are given to persons desirous of emigrating into Upper Canada.

In the latter part of the volume, we have what we consider as a valuable agricultural report of the state of the crops and climate in the district of Montreal, taken in each month during the years 1816, 1817, and 1818. These reports, which were originally published in the Montreal Herald, serve to give the practical farmer a more correct idea of the state of agriculture in that district, than could possibly have been obtained

obtained by any other mode of description: but they do not admit of abridgment. It will be seen that a period of six months, viz. from the end of October to nearly the beginning of May, is an entire blank in Canadian agriculture, all operations being suspended by the intense and continued frost. A table of annual exports and imports at the port of Quebec is also annexed to this volume.

We cannot too strongly recommend the present work to the notice of all persons who have any intention of emigrating to Canada, or who may wish to obtain correct information respecting the agriculture and natural resources of this part of the British dominions. The following observations, with which we shall conclude, are applicable to the United States as well as to Canada:

Many persons who go out from England find themselves disappointed from a want of previous adequate investigation of the difficulties they must naturally encounter in such an undertaking; and they increase those difficulties greatly by not making an early decision, but hesitating and halting, till delay has consumed a great part of that property which was requisite to their comfortable establishment on their arrival. Others are disheartened at the commencement of their new undertaking, because they have not made themselves previously acquainted with the business which they are to subsist by, on their arrival on these shores. Persons should not emigrate to America for the purpose of learning how to become farmers, unless they can, in the very first instance, command a sufficient capital to maintain them, and those whom they may find it necessary to call to their aid, till they have acquired that knowledge, and realized the substantial fruits of it. This must necessarily be a work of considerable time.

At the present moment, from the stoppage of several banks in the United States, and the great reduction of the circulating medium, the farmers are suffering severely, and are unable to employ the numerous hands which have recently arrived from this country: who, we are informed on the best authority, are offering their services for food. This circumstance must, however, be favourable to the remote western settlements; in which the want of labourers is felt as the greatest obstacle to rapid improvement.

ART. IV. *The Works of Charles Lamb.* Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Ollier. 1818.

WE must admit that this is an entertaining little miscellany. The *prose-part* of the work, indeed, (we mean the *professed prose-part*) is much superior to the poetry: but, altogether

altogether, the collection offers much that reflects credit on the feeling, the ability, and the knowledge of the author.

Mr. Lamb is known to be a sort of *ex-member* of the Lake School. We, however, consider him as a very *honourable* member of that whimsical society; which, in a few words, may be characterized as embracing a little knot of writers, who, by means of certain peculiarities of style, have contrived to *fulget* themselves, and to get *fulgetted*, into a moderate degree of notoriety. These peculiarities, in their progress, have called forth some powerful ridicule, in which they are embalmed: but, if they were summed up seriously, they might be said to consist chiefly in the revival of known truths, a little disfigured with the most arrogant air of novelty, and in the perversion and misapplication of acknowledged principles of composition. At the bottom of all their eccentricities, lies an extravagant, almost a fanatical, admiration of Shakspeare, and of the play-writers about his period. To hear one of this school speak of the merits of our old dramatists (we beg to exclude Shakspeare from what follows), a person unacquainted with their works would imagine them to be as faultless in taste as they are confessedly powerful in genius; he would even be led to under-rate, most dangerously, the general viciousness of their moral exhibitions, as well as the vile confusion of metaphors and figures of all kinds that debase their poetical characters. It is gross prejudice, indeed, to confound the strong and sometimes revolting subjects of the tragic muse of Athens, with the minuteness of detail, and the glow of iniquity, in which the atrocious incidents of some of the ruder London dramas are presented to the audience. To say nothing of the false religion of the Greeks, which, joining their heroes on to their demigods by an almost imperceptible link, and even attributing to their gods the actions of both these inferior classes of beings, threw a veil of veneration over subjects which excite horror in us;—to omit this defence at present, let us only observe *the different manner* in which such subjects are treated by the Grecian and the English Melpomene. “*Crimine ab uno disce omnes.*” Let us contrast the incestuous love of Ford with the agonizing guilt of Sophocles. This is enough: but the contrast might be pursued through many disgraceful ramifications, and the possessors of a purer creed distinctly proved to have possessed also impurer morals; that is, to have suffered their licentious and barbarous taste so to blind their judgment, and so to corrupt their moral sense, as to exhibit things which a civilized and a Christian theatre ought to have blushed to witness.

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A much milder censure, and a censure applicable to comparatively few parts of his wonderful efforts, attaches to Shakspeare. His indecencies, too, are mostly, if not entirely, of the comic kind; and from his works, therefore, large collections of most innocent and exalted passages may be made: while entire plays may be acted without any but an inspiring and a noble effect on the spectator. Still, when we are speaking as critics of composition, are we to be so carried away by the blind admiration, and by the tame and slavish imitation, with which some writers of the day (and among others the writers of the absurd school in question) have loaded and dishonoured Shakspeare, as to be insensible to his numerous faults of style? Are we to suffer the present generation of young Englishmen to grow up, imagining that *all perfection* was centered in the theatre at the Bank-side? Is our language, is our poetry altogether, to be considered as having attained its purest polish, and its most accomplished vigour, in the days of Elizabeth and James? Are we to mistake the early shoots and budding energy of the oak, for its full luxuriance of leaf? Nay, are we to forget, in the magnificent strength of its trunk, the branches that were permitted to grow too low about it, and which prevented its farther straight elevation to the skies? In a word, are we, with some half-witted and half-informed admirers of antiquity, to draw so broad a line of superiority for the Tudor and the Stuart dynasty of genius, when compared to that fresh literary race who have ruled us since the Revolution, that in the blaze of Shakspeare and his satellites every subsequent poet is to be buried and lost; and we of the 19th century are to be sent back to the first improvers of our rude native tongue, for models of style and for subjects of imitation?

We could, it is obvious, dilate to much extent on this theme, which would afford ample materials for a volume of *comparative criticism*: and such a volume, well-executed, would be very useful at present. *Suum cuique* should be the principle of it; and then we should no longer see the merits of Dryden *, *as the reformer of our versification*; so ungratefully forgotten by Englishmen; we should no longer hear the pertness of ignorance assailing the impregnable reputation of Pope; Gray and Goldsmith (and many other tuneful worthies) would resume that *full* portion of honour among the community of readers, which would positively preclude

* Of the plays of this great poet, it is impossible to speak without pain. They (the tragedies, we mean,) can be considered only as store-houses of detached beauties.

their present injudicious toleration of scribblers, who are the exact antipodes (in every particular of the poetic character) to the great names in question. Then, also, the cant of modern philology would fade away before the clear and steady light of Addison, of Johnson, and of those who follow in their honourable path.

Mr. Lamb edited a selection of specimens from the early play writers*; from which he has now republished brief notices in the present volumes, relating to the *poetical characters* of the authors. We were pleased in general with that work, though with some limitations of opinion; and we shall not here enter into an examination of his overcharged estimate of the merits of those writers, though we feel it necessary to say something in reply to his essay on Shakspeare. An ingenious spirit pervades this essay: but it is, we think, fundamentally wrong in several of its principal assumptions. The first supposition to which we object is this; that, *even in the closet*, more than a very small number of readers can appreciate the more abstracted, the more essentially poetical, beauties of Shakspeare. This refined pleasure we consider to be necessarily limited to a very few; — to readers whose habits of mental analysis enable them to detect the secret operations of a poetical mind, in the very exercise and enjoyment of its peculiar powers; — and to readers whose highly gifted natural imagination supplies the want of art, and supersedes all study; who, in a word, are placed by the partial hand of nature nearly on a level with the poet himself. For the consolation of the multitude, these beauties are *rare*; though another of Mr. Lamb's erroneous assumptions is that they are *frequent*. We contend, on the contrary, that the pervading excellences of Shakspeare are obvious and popular, and are all the more meritorious in consequence. He was the Orpheus of exoteric poetry; and (unlike Milton, and some few other English poets,) he addresses himself not only to the general passions and actions, but to the general understandings and fancies of mankind. No doubt, as he was a dramatic writer, and well acquainted with the stage and all its existing mechanism, he adapted his efforts to *representation*, and left much to be explained and pointed by the eye and gesture of the actor. All this, with the exception of the few refinements in question, which *can* only be perceived, perhaps, in the closet, *was* so explained and so pointed by Garrick, as our fathers assure us; and their report is confirmed by our own testimony to the like success in Mr. Kemble.

* See M. R. Vol. lviii. N.

We have thus anticipated our difference with Mr. Lamb on another point; namely, his assertion, that the greater portion of the merit of Shakspeare *cannot* be exhibited in representation. We think that it *can*; and it will require very different reasonings from those which this essay contains to shake our opinions, — we should rather say, our recollections, — on this subject. There is, however, one living test to which we would appeal, in this argument with Mr. Lamb.

If that gentleman ever enjoyed the high gratification of hearing Mrs. Siddons read in private, he would, surely, at the moment, be ready to allow that nothing was wanting to the full sense, or to the full poetry, of Shakspeare. We can imagine him here ready to answer, “Yes: but this resembles the closet, rather than the stage:” — to which we reply, *By no means*; for *all* our early notions of dramatic excellence, whether in author or actor, (as imbibed by seeing this unrivalled representative of Shakspeare perform his best characters,) are revived, and revived with every accompaniment of recollection, by the undiminished spirit, and, if possible, the improved taste, which rendered the gratification in question so perfect, for the favoured auditors who were admitted to share it.

To a few more observations we feel it necessary to advert, on Mr. Lamb’s essay.

First, we would ask him whether he does not occasionally confound the *quaint way* (of which all the writers at this period more or less partook) that Shakspeare had of investing some notions, which are obvious enough, with originality of thought, — with what Mr. L. would call “*poetry*?” Secondly, whether he has accurately examined the constituent phrases of some sentences in this great author, which he has been in the habit of admiring as flights of fancy; or whether he has well considered the adaptation of some of his most admired metaphors to the place in which they stand? Whether, we mean, that was the sort of imagination, and still more the sort of feeling, which were required at the moment?

In conclusion, we have to remark that we entirely agree with Mr. Lamb in his censure of the unauthorized and sometimes even vulgar interpolations of Shakspeare; that we condemn the vile admixtures of Cibber as much as *he* can; and that we have witnessed the *shame of Dryden* revived and perpetuated in the miserable additions to the *Tempest*, with a regret quite equal to his own. *

* It is scarcely necessary to say that the lines on Garrick’s monument offend us almost as much as they offend Mr. Lamb; and yet it is clear that Garrick extended the fame of Shakspeare.

We will finish our account of the *prose-part* of Mr. Lamb's publication, before we come to the poetry. This is reversing the order of the volumes in print, but it is making a due distinction between their deserts.

Some extracts from Fuller, and a few remarks on them; a successful vindication of Hogarth, from the charge of being merely a humorous painter, and of a low order*; a ludicrous panegyric on George Wither, falsified by the quotations from this moderate and forgotten person; and some essays, originally published in a periodical work called "The Reflector," in which Mr. Lamb shews a great portion of *caricature* humour: all these miscellaneous articles are succeeded by 'Mr. H., a Farce,' and, in our judgment, a very laughable one, though it did not succeed on the stage. Thus closes the second volume.

The first volume contains gentler matter: viz. A small collection of Poems; the Tragedy of John Woodvil; the Tale of Rosamund Gray; and Recollections of Christ's Hospital. Of the Poems, we can only say in general that, like other longer collections, in them *sunt mala*; *sunt quædam mediocria*: we cannot add, *sunt bona plura*. "Repetition" has been often called "*the soul*" of poetry; and so it is with Mr. Lamb. At least, it occupies much of the *body* of his works.

- 'Smiling river, smiling river.'
- 'In thy channel, in thy channel.'
- 'Ever whitening, ever whitening.'
- 'As if senseless, as if senseless.'
- 'All, all, are gone, the old familiar faces.'
- 'High-born Helen.'
- 'High-born Helen,' &c. &c.

We are told by the author that the verses, of which the titles are printed in italics, are the composition of a female relative; and we hold these sacred. They display, certainly, very considerable talent. Mr. L. himself must excuse us when we tell him that the lines (not *itabically* intitled) 'On the celebrated Picture, by Leonardo Da Vinci, called the

* We must, however, here also observe that Mr. L. shews a want of discrimination that is common, we think, to the writers of this school; as, for instance, his *daring* to compare the sorrow and the sadness which overspread Poussin's "Plague at Athens," with the disgust excited by Hogarth's "Gin Lane."

Virgin of the Rocks,' are silly beyond any indulgence to silliness. They are, in a word, the fac-simile of *many* effusions of Mr. Wordsworth.

' While young John runs to greet
The greater infants' feet,
The mother standing by, with trembling passion
Of devout admiration,
Beholds the *engaging* mystic play, and
Pretty adoration,' &c. &c.

This is true *methodistical poetry*: this is that mixture of heaven and earth, which was never effected (no, not even by the *Puritans*!) until *methodism* appeared on the latter, without any commission from the former: this is the spirit which induced Mr. Wordsworth to describe Peter Bell's conversion by a Methodist preacher in appropriate doggrel.

' John Woodvil, a Tragedy,' was published separately in the year 1802, and reviewed in our xlth vol. p. 442.

' Rosamund Gray' is a tale of great tenderness. We have here that most endearing, perhaps, of all dependent ties, the attachment of a young girl to an aged female relative; and their holy intercourse of affection is interrupted in the most heart-breaking manner. We shall say no more; lest we should spoil the pleasure of some reader, who may not yet have encountered this pathetic story.

The volume concludes with 'Recollections of Christ's Hospital.' Nothing can be more honourable to the author than this little essay; which contains exactly the feeling that a good and clever man would entertain, towards the well-managed school in which he was educated. We now say adieu to this author, with a mingled feeling of respect and regret.

ART. V. *Memoirs of James Hardy Vaux.* Written by Himself.
2 Vols. 12mo. 10s. Boards. Sold by all Booksellers. 1819.

THE description of active adventurers, whether in real life or in the regions of fiction, is always attractive: but that attraction is dangerous, from its tendency in the one case to leave false impressions on the mind, and in the other to excite an improper emulation in those whom such recitals principally amuse. When the author is the most prominent actor in his own tale, and places his scene amid the bustle of the world, he becomes a sort of hero or pattern in the eyes of his youthful reader; and the enthusiasm, with which he naturally speaks of *his own pursuits*, as naturally excites an inclination

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and

and a preference for them, whether they be praiseworthy or vicious, and not unfrequently lays the foundation for their reader's future worldly career. How many military or naval heroes have received their first impetus from reading of hair-breadth escapes "in the imminent deadly breach," and of the glorious dangers of our tars "when thundering cannons rattle;" and the lives of many artists will shew how their endeavours were first excited by the history of the labour and success of their predecessors. For these reasons, we strongly disapprove the present publication, containing the adventures of a convicted felon, transported for life to Botany Bay; and we consider it as calculated to initiate the unformed mind into scenes the most depraved, and to excite the novice in guilt to a continuance in his lawless pursuit; suggesting new arts of deception, and new modes of concealment.

We shall not therefore assist in the dissemination of Vaux's story by placing any extracts from it before our readers, nor shall we inquire into the probability or improbability of many of the adventures which he relates: but, as thieves are not forbidden "to tell the secrets of their prison-house," we may find some points in the book which may be interesting to those who are engaged in the various inquiries relative to the state of prisons and of the hulks, and in the consideration of the transportation-laws.

The House of Correction in Cold-Bath-Fields was the first gaol which Vaux inhabited; and his observations there too plainly prove that prisons, when not constructed with care, must become the nurseries of crime.

' In order to amuse my mind during this solitary week, I climbed up to the grated aperture over the door of my cell, and listened to the conversation of the neighbouring prisoners, who were also confined for re-examination; and from their discourse I acquired a more extensive knowlege of the various modes of fraud and robbery, which I now found were reduced to a regular system, than I should have done in seven years, had I continued at large. I was indeed astonished at what I heard, and I clearly perceived that instead of expressing contrition for their offences, their only consideration was how to proceed with more safety, but increased vigour, in their future depredations. And here I was struck with the fallacious notions entertained by the projectors of this prison, which was reputed to be upon the plan of the benevolent and immortal Howard, who had recommended the confinement of offenders in separate cells, in order to prevent the effects of evil communication among persons who had not all attained an equal degree of depravity. This object, however, was not effected here, for being within hearing of each other, they could, by sitting up over the door of each cell, converse

verse each with his opposite neighbour, and even form a line of communication, where the discourse became general, from one end of the gallery to the other. As a proof of what I have advanced, I knew several of the prisoners then confined with me in this passage, who were at that time but striplings, and novices in villany, and who after several years' continuance in their evil courses, at length became notorious offenders, and having narrowly escaped a shameful death, are now prisoners for life in this colony.'

He was afterward ordered to the New Prison, Clerkenwell; where, by paying certain fees, he was allowed better accommodation than that which was allotted to those miserable wretches who could not afford such an indulgence. We know not whether this practice be continued; if it be, we cannot but think that it ought to be absolutely prohibited. — The manner in which the time between commitment and trial is passed is thus described, and adds cogency to the above opinion :

' It was about the middle of April when I was taken up, and this being what is termed long vacation, I had nearly seven weeks to lie in jail, before the sessions came on. This time I passed in the most agreeable manner I could, reading sometimes books and newspapers, at others, smoking, drinking, and conversing with my fellow-prisoners; having all plenty of money, we formed a pretty respectable mess, and lived on the most sociable terms. Our society was increased by several new chums before the sessions, and as these persons were some degrees above the common class of thieves, I found much satisfaction in their conversation. There were indeed among them some of the first characters upon the town, leading men in the various branches of priggling * they professed; both toby-gills †, buz-gloaks ‡, cracksmen §, &c., but from their good address and respectable appearance, nobody would suspect their real vocation. As for the unfortunate prisoners, who had no money to pay for indulgence, they were confined in a large yard, called the commons side, where they were indeed exposed to "variety of wretchedness." The part I inhabited was termed "between gates," being that space which is between the outer gate of the prison, and the gate leading to the common side.

' My knowledge of life, as it is termed by the knavish part of mankind, and my acquaintance with family people ||, every day increased: but, as all who heard my case concurred with myself in opinion that I had no chance of escaping conviction, I did not form any intimacy, or devise any plans beyond the present mo-

* Thieving.'

† Highwaymen.'

‡ Pick-pockets.'

§ House-breakers.'

|| Persons living by fraud and depredation.'

ment, concluding that I should, at least, be confined for two years, if not transported for seven.'

He was, however, acquitted on that occasion, but was soon afterward convicted of another offence, (as he asserts, by a conspiracy of two officers, for the sake of the reward,) and was then sentenced to seven years' transportation. The following is the account of his introduction to the convict-ship; to which, by favour, he was sent without serving, according to the usual custom, a part of his time on board the hulks.

' Having entered the ship, we were all indiscriminately stripped, (according to indispensable custom,) and were saluted with several buckets of salt water, thrown over our heads by a boatswain's mate. After undergoing this watery ordeal, we were compelled to put on a suit of slop-clothing: our own apparel, though good in kind, being thrown over-board. We were then double-ironed, and put between decks, where we selected such berths, for sleeping, &c., as each thought most eligible.'

When he had served his full term within a few months, he returned to England as clerk to Governor King, who had been just then superseded: but, resorting to his old practices, he was soon convicted of a capital offence, and received sentence of death, which was commuted to perpetual banishment. On this occasion, he spent a year on board the *Retribution*-hulk at Woolwich, of which he gives the ensuing account:

' I had now a new scene of misery to contemplate; and, of all the shocking scenes I had ever beheld, this was the most distressing. There were confined in this floating dungeon nearly six hundred men, most of them double-ironed; and the reader may conceive the horrible effects arising from the continual rattling of chains, the filth and vermin naturally produced by such a crowd of miserable inhabitants, the oaths and execrations constantly heard among them; and above all, from the shocking necessity of associating and communicating more or less with so depraved a set of beings. On arriving on board, we were all immediately stripped, and washed in large tubs of water, then, after putting on each a suit of coarse slop-clothing, we were ironed, and sent below, our own clothes being taken from us, and detained till we could sell or otherwise dispose of them, as no person is exempted from the obligation to wear the ship-dress. On descending the hatch-way, no conception can be formed of the scene which presented itself. I shall not attempt to describe it; but nothing short of a descent to the infernal regions can be at all worthy of a comparison with it. I soon met with many of my old Botany Bay acquaintances, who were all eager to offer me their friendship and services, — that is, with a view to rob me of what little I had; for in this place there is no other motive or subject for ingenuity. All former friendships or connections are dissolved, and a man here will rob his best benefactor, or even mess-mate, of an article worth

is one halfpenny. Every morning, at seven o'clock, all the convicts capable of work, or, in fact, all who are capable of getting into the boats, are taken ashore to the Warren, in which the arsenal and other public buildings are situated, and are employed at various kinds of labour, some of them very trifling; and while so employed, each gang of sixteen, or twenty, is watched and directed by a fellow called a guard. These are most commonly of the lowest class of human beings; they are devoid of all feeling; ignorant in the extreme, brutal by nature, and rendered tyrannical and cruel by the consciousness of the power they possess; no others, but such as I have detailed, would hold the situation, their wages being not more than a labourer would earn in London. They invariably carry a long and ponderous stick, with which, without the smallest provocation, they will fell an unfortunate convict to the ground, and repeatedly repeat their blows long after the poor sufferer is insensible. At noon the working party return on board to dinner, and then again go on shore, where they labour till near sun-set. On returning on board in the evening, all hands are mustered by a trumpet, and the whole being turned down below, the hatches are put down, and secured for the night. As to the food, the stipulated ration is very scanty, but of even part of that they are denied. Their provisions being supplied by contractors, and not by the Government, are of the worst kind, such as would not be considered eatable or wholesome elsewhere; and both the weight and quality are always deficient. The allowance of bread is said to be about twenty ounces per day. Three days in the week they have about four ounces of cheese for dinner, and the other four days a pound of beef. The breakfast is invariably boiled barley, of the coarsest kind imaginable; and of this the pigs of the hulk eat in for a third part, because it is so nauseous that nothing but downright hunger will enable a man to eat it. For supper, they have, on banyan days, burgoo, of as good a quality as the rice, and which is similarly disposed of; and on meat days, the beef in which the beef was boiled, is thickened with barley, and is a mess called "Smiggins," of a more detestable nature than either of the two former! The reader may conceive that I do not exaggerate, when I state, that among the convicts the common value of these several eatables, is,—for a day's allowance of beef, one halfpenny;—ditto, of cheese, one halfpenny;—ditto, of bread, one halfpenny; but the cheese is most commonly so bad, that they throw it away. It is manufactured, I believe, of skimmed milk for this particular contract. The beef generally consists of old bulls, or cows who have died of age or famine; the least trace of putridity is considered a phenomenon, and it is far inferior upon the whole to good horse-flesh. I once saw the prisoners throw the day's supply overboard the moment it was hoisted out of the hold, and for this offence they were severely flogged. The friends of these unhappy persons are not allowed to come on board, but remain alongside during their visit; the prisoners are, it is said, suffered to go into their boat, but a guard is placed within

hearing of their conversation, and if a friend or parent has come one hundred miles, they are not allowed above ten minutes' interview; so that instead of consolation, the visit only excites regret at the parties being so suddenly torn asunder. All letters, too, written by prisoners, must be delivered unsealed to the chief mate for his inspection, before they are sent ashore; and such as he thinks obnoxious, are of course suppressed. In like manner, all letters received from the post-office are opened and scrutinized. If I were to attempt a full description of the miseries endured in these ships, I could fill a volume; but I shall sum up all by stating, that besides robbery from each other, which is as common as cursing and swearing, I witnessed among the prisoners themselves, during the twelvemonth I remained with them, one deliberate murder, for which the perpetrator was executed at Maidstone, and one suicide; and that unnatural crimes are openly committed."

All this is truly disgusting; and the only consolatory reflection is that the picture here given refers to the year 1810, and that these miserable receptacles of guilt are already much, and likely to be considerably more, improved.

Few of the writer's observations, either in this or his former visit to Botany Bay, are worthy of record: his narrative relating little more than his personal adventures, with no description of the general duties of the convicts, and scarcely any remarks on the state of the colony. It appears, however, that the Governor is possessed of almost absolute power, which in such a state is perhaps indispensable; and Vaux asserts (what we hope is untrue) that, in the exercise of that power, the late Governor King inflicted flogging in order to extort confession; a system of torture to which we are glad to see that he acknowledges the present Governor (Macquarrie) does not resort. An usual mode of punishing delinquency in the colony is by sending the offender to hard labour, in mending the roads, &c.

We consider this publication as full enough to be dangerous to the young, but too meagre to be very serviceable to those who might have turned its details to an useful account. The dictionary of *flash-language* does not add much to its real value, though something to its curiosity. A perusal of the whole brought back to our recollection, in some degree, the peculiar sort of *instruction* which, in our younger days, we derived from *the Life of Jonathan Wild the Great*, by Fielding: not that we mean to compare that illustrious character with the minor *hero* before us.

ART. VI. *Æschyli Tragoediæ quæ supersunt, deperditarum fabularum Fragmenta, et Scholia Græca, ex Editione Thomæ Stanleii : cum Versione Latinâ ab ipso emendata, et Commentario longè quam antea fuit auctiori, ex Manuscriptis ejus nunc demùm edito. Accedunt variae Lectiones et Notæ V.V. D.D. Criticæ ac Philologicæ : Quibus suas passim intertexuit Samuel Butler, S.T.P. Regiæ Scholæ Salopiensis Archididasculus, Coll. Div. Joann. apud Cantabr. nuper socius. Tom. VII, VIII. 8vo. 1l. 6s. Boards. Evans.*

WE resume our long-interrupted task in the review of this extensive and learned publication; referring the reader to our former articles in the volumes cited below.* After so undesirable (although so unavoidable) a delay, we shall not now waste time in preliminary matter, but enter *in medias res, non secus ac notas*, in our very outset.

The critical notes to the '*Persæ*' come first under our examination; in due order.—*Persæ*, v. 35. *Nott. Critt.* p. 12. tom. vii. In a long note, suggested by the word *Ἀγυπλιογενής*, Dr. Butler has imparted some original and interesting grammatical information. After having set Brunck right, in his notion of the contraction of the vowels *io* in this word, the Doctor proceeds to some more general remarks on instances of the crasis, both in Greek and Latin authors. With regard to the former, he has succeeded, by the number and variety of his examples, in proving his point; namely, that the canon of Professor Porson, (of whom on this occasion, as on all others, Dr. B. speaks with the due veneration of a scholar,) concerning the supposed sole use of the crasis in syllables compounded with the vowel *ε*, is too general. As it would occupy too much of our room to quote all the passages, and the proof could not properly be made out more briefly, we must be satisfied with a reference to this erudite excursus of Greek criticism: but we cannot leave this branch of the subject without adding a remark, which just occurs to us, (in confirmation of the Doctor's argument,) that it would be extraordinary indeed, and contrary to that spirit of analogy which pervades all the more important Grecian usages, if a language which admitted such a variety of contractions of vowels, in its verbs, should so capriciously have confined them in its nouns; particularly when we consider what licences, of all kinds, belong, *quasi de jure*, to one considerable class of the latter.

We subjoin the end of the note, which refers to similar contractions in Latin.

* Vol. lxiii. p. 162.; lxxvi. p. 373.; and lxxviii. p. 377.

Sed de his satis, nunc de aliorum vocalium concursibus loquar. In genitivo secundæ declinationis ii semper antiquitus per crasin i pronuntiatum fuisse, nemo nescit. Imperi scil., consili, Tarquini, dicebant, non imperii, consilii, Tarquinii. Sic in vocativo filie coaluit in fili, in dativo plurali Diis in Dis. Sic pro alii, ali dixit Lucret. Nam quod alii dederat—VI. 1225. Non hic dici poterat consilji, alji, &c. ut nec mjihi, vel mji, pro mi, quod pro mihi ponitur, nec njhil, vel njil, pro nil, in quod nihil contrahitur. Apud Catullum, XIV. 18. Curram scrinia, cæsios Aquinios, in Aquinio^s coalescunt io, ut dicendum sit Aquinnyos. Apud eundem LXIV. 103. Idomeniosne petam montes at gurgite lato, nullo modo pronuntia^r i potest Idomenjosne, ne præcedens syllaba producat^r; dicendum est Idomenyosne, consonante n hic non geminata ante io. In vocib^{us} aliud et suis, quæ passim apud Lucretium, hæc pro monosyllaba, ill^{ud} pro disyllaba occurrunt, certe non dici potest aljud et sujs. Scribitu^r atque editur, alid et sis, sed forte vocalis primitus in consonanten^t transibat, ut pronuntiaretur alivd et svis, deinde euphonice caus^a rejiciebatur. Nam alid apud Lucretium III. 983. et sæpe, ultiman^t brevem habet, sis post vocalem brevem occurrit, III. 1038. unde pate^t consonantem v, vel, si malis, vocalem u, ex istis vocibus penitus exclu^sam esse. Quanquam legem istam de litera s cum consonante sylla^bam producente Lucretii temporibus nondum invaluisse, certissimum est. Alias etiam crases passim invenient, qui Catullum, Lucretium, Ennium, vel veterum Tragicorum Latinorum fragmenta pervolvunt, easque satis notabiles, sed in quibus jam non possumus immorari. Hæc enim ad aliorum industriam excitandam sufficiant; cætera, si occasio oblata fuerit libellum de metris et prosodia Latinorum edendi, repetemus. Nunc ad Æschylum redeamus.

As it is our object, in the present article, not only to apprise the maturer scholar of the value of that great addition to his resources which has been made by the editor of *Æschylus*, but also to guide the tiro in his critical studies, we shall merely refer to, or briefly comment on, many passages of comparatively less curious research; reserving our fuller quotations and remarks for still more important matter. Passing over, therefore, the verbal criticisms on lines 54. and 133., we have much praise to bestow on the new metrical arrangement of the chorus ending at line 139.; although we cannot enter into all that ingenious adaptation of sound to sense, which enables the learned Doctor to discover as much in a few lines of the epode, as was even to be discovered in the shake of Burleigh's head in the "Critic." We are rather sceptical on this subject; although there are some simple facts, relating to pronunciation and musical tone, which, as they are observable in real life on occasions of particular feeling or energy, may be, no doubt, and have been, imitated by those great copyists of nature, the antient poets. Whether Dr. B. has detected such a fact at line 152., we will not decide.

In the note on line 712. (for we find that we must proceed yet more rapidly with our examination of this work;—such a field, *magnum maris æquor arandum*, still spreads before us!) the editor has the following remark:

‘ *Paulo inconcinnius forte aliquibus videbitur ὁμοιοτέλετον illud ὡς ἔως, sed tales asperitates non ubique vitabant, nescio an vitare voluerunt tragici. Immo apud alios etiam, cum poetas tum solutæ orationis scriptores sæpius occurrunt. Apud Eurip. Orest. v. 238. habemus. Ἔως ἔωσι σ' εὖ φρονεῖν Ἑρινύες. Helen. v. 60. ἔως φῶς ἡλίου τὸδ' ἔβλεπες. Sic αἶξας ὀξὺς, Soph. Ajac. v. 258. et alia id genus innumera. Apud Xenoph. p. 622. C. edit Leuncl. terminatio ὡν quater et vicies occurrit. Apud Latinos similia sunt exempla, quæ tamen auribus nostris ingratisissima sunt. Virg. Æn. VIII. 620.*

‘ Terribilem cristis galeam flamasque vomentem,
Fatiferumque ensem, lorica ex ære rigentem,
Sanguineam ingentem. —

‘ *Æn. XI. 200.*

—— ‘ semustaque servant
Busta. —

‘ *Ibid. v. 781.*

‘ *Cæca sequebatur.*

‘ *Sed hæc sufficient.*

We are not disposed to agree with the learned Doctor in his reasoning on this subject; and, as he now touches us in a tender point, (the euphony of versification,) we must beg to stand forth as the champions of classical harmony against so unexpected an attack. We have here, indeed, an easy cause to defend, compared to that similar cause which we have so frequently maintained in English literature; for even our best poets have been forced, by the intractable nature of many of their most necessary combinations of consonants, to set an example of discord which the greedy race of their licentious modern imitators have devoured with delighted ears, and promulgated with most exulting lips. When, however, such deviations from their generally uniform, yet varied, harmony occur in the classics, although it may be well to collect them as *beacons*, it is sad to erect them as *guide-posts*; and when the learned Doctor says, in the extracted note above, ‘ *nescio an vitare voluerint*,’ he gives the sanction of his authority to the advocates of studied discord. *Non ubique vitabant*, is most certain: but whether from design, or the unavoidable relaxation of long watchfulness and labour, we think, scarcely admits of a doubt. The

—— “ *tum stridor ferri, tractæque catenæ,*”

must

must be allowed to form an instance of the congruity of sound and sense already stated; as, perhaps,

— “ *populeâ mœrens Philomela sub umbra* ”

may be of a softer kind of adaptation: — but, on this occasion, Dr. Butler seems to have had no such adaptation in his view; and, therefore, we must repeat, he has incautiously proposed a dangerous example for imitation, to a literary race who want every *restraint*, and no *indulgence*, whether in the theory or the practice of their poetry.

The metrical note on line 741. contains so material an addition to our knowledge of these curious niceties, that we feel bound to transcribe it. Dr. Butler has, in this instance, thrown the same species of light on the trochaic metre which his great precursor in these obscure paths, the unrivalled Porson, threw on the iambic.

‘ *Eadem profecto in Trochaicis regula obtinere videtur, quæ in Senariis tragicis, Porsono observata, ut vocem finalem trisyllabam, vel quasi trisyllabam, præcedat syllaba brevis. Cf. v. 165. ἐστὶν ἐν Φρεσί. v. 173. σὲ δις, Φρέσαι. v. 219. δὲ χερὴ χοάς. v. 221. κατ’ ἐκ’ ἐφ’ ὄφρην. v. 222. ἐνέρεθ’ ἐς Φάος. v. 229. ἐνέρεθ’ ἡνὸς φίλοις. v. 245. τεκνέσθαι. v. 707. σάφες τί μοι. v. 734. εἶδε τις γέρον. v. 754. φθάσαντος ἀεργαῖν. v. 758. εἶδ’ ἐν αὐξάνειν. v. 760. ἐφ’ Ἑλλάδα. Agam. v. 1673. κτενέοντα. λοιδορεῖν, qui soli versus apud nostrum reperiuntur finalem habentes vel trisyllabam vel quasi trisyllabam. In paucis Trochaicis Sophocleis duo sunt exempla, Philoctet. v. 1404. Μὴ φροντίσης, et v. 1407. ἀλλ’ ὦ φίλε. Sed in utroque creticus monosyllabon sequitur, ut non impingant in canonem de Iambicis. Ut nec in versibus Æschyleis v. 173. et v. 760. peccarent σοὶ et εἰς. Apud Euripidem in Oreste, brevitatis gratia, versus omittam qui monosyllabon habent ante finalem trisyllabam. Præter hos habemus v. 721. κτενέοντας αὐτίκα. v. 732. ἐνθάδ’ ἦγαγε. v. 741. εἴλετ’ ἡ πάτερ. v. 744. γυναιξὶ δ’ ἄλκιμος. v. 750. φρεσίοισι πανταχῇ. v. 753. αὐτὸς οἶχομαι. v. 762. ἔχωσι προσάτας. v. 765. ἔδρασας ἔνδικα. v. 767. λάβωσί σ’ ἄσμενοι. v. 773. μᾶλλον ἢ μένων. v. 780. καινὸν αὖ λέγειν. v. 787. δίκαιον ὦδ’ ἔχει. v. 1520. βαρβάραιοι προσπιτνῶν. v. 1532. φρυξὶν ἦν φόβος. v. 1534. Γοργὸν εἰσιδὼν. v. 1569. Ὀρέσα δυσυχεῖς. Sufficiant hæc ad hanc regulam confirmandam; nam omnes Trochaicos Euripideos exscribere tædium tantum lectori injiceret. Occurrunt scil. apud Eurip. præter jam citatos, triginta quinque versus Trochaici in quibus Cretico finali, trisyllabo vel quasi trisyllabo, præcedit vox hypermonosyllaba. Ex his tres tantum regulæ nostræ adversari videntur Phæniss. v. 638. ubi τῆτον δ’ αἰτίω olim legebatur, sed τόνδε δ’ αἰτίω reposuit Pors. Iph. Aul. v. 380. ubi olim legebatur αἰσχερὸς αἰδεῖσθ’ εἰ φιλεῖ, sed χρηστὸς αἰδεῖσθαι φιλεῖ ex Stobæo correxit Markl. q. v. ad loc. Tertius est Helen. v. 1644. ubi legitur ἀφίσασθ’ ἐκπόδων, sed legendum est ἀφίσαι, vel ἀφίσας, nam parum interest utrum Theoclymenus Chorum vel pluraliter vel singulariter alloquatur; immo, posterius prætulerim. Hinc patet Senarios Iambicos non per dipodias, sed cum cæsura Trochaice metiendos esse.’*

Had this editor presented us with little besides the foregoing note on the subject of Greek metre, all real scholars would be bound to acknowledge their respect for the research and the judgment which it displays: but instances of this species of just observation, founded on extensive reading, often occur. For example, at line 839. is an original remark on the very infrequent use of three following tri-syllables, or quasi-tri-syllables (such as constitute three entire iambic feet) in the tragic Senarian; and, throughout these last volumes, as in the preceding portions of the work, no opportunity is lost of eliciting fresh information from similar subjects. We can only refer to line 891. for a good conjectural emendation of the word *μεσαγκτας*; and, requesting to insert a brief additional explanation of our own into the note on the word *ἀβρόβαται*, line 1077., we must proceed to the Philological Notes.

After his usual summary of the opinions of others, the Doctor says, '*Rectè Schutz, nihil aliud a verbo ἀβρόβαται designari vidit, quàm lentum gradum tristitiæ convenientem.*' We may add that a phrase occurs in Scripture which exactly answers to this interpretation of the word *ἀβρόβαται*, "*went softly*;" viz. in the description of Ahab's grief in 1 Kings, xxi. 27.; and again in Isaiah, xxxviii. 15., in Hezekiah's mourning, "*Shall I go softly*" all my days in the "*bitterness of my soul*?"

The first specimen of the *Philological* division, to which we are able to call the reader's attention, (for we find it necessary to abridge our references greatly, as we advance,) is the note on line 187. We chuse it as illustrating a common matter, the classical meaning of the word *βαρβαρος*. The rashness of the comment of Pauw may well be omitted.

'*Præter loca quæ commemoravit Stanl. in quibus βάρβαρος, et Barbarus pro simpl. externo ponuntur, absque ulla contumelia, cf, etiam Plautum qui sæpius Latinos Barbaros vocat, comædius scil. ex Græcis convertens. Sed et ubi de suo loquitur, nihil Græco scriptori debens, Nævium popularem suum barbarum vocat, Mil. Glor. II. 2. 56. Nam os columnatum poetæ esse inaudivi barbaro.*'

v. 209. We have here a note on the peculiar force of the Greek phrase *ἔδεν ἀλλ' ἢ*, in which is detected a probable confusion of the particle *ἀλλα* with the adjective (misprinted *adjecturum*) *ἄλλο*, in *Hæogeveen*; and some useful collections are added, on the ellipsis of the verbs *ποιεω* in Greek and *facio* in Latin, in the same tense with the following verb in the sentence.

v. 291. '*Υπερβάλλει γὰρ ἥδε συμφορὰ τὸ μὴδε λέξαι.*'

We extract the marrow of this ingenious note.

‘ *In υπερβάλλει inest notio negativa, q. d. Anglice, This calamity is so great, that IT IS IMPOSSIBLE either to relate or to investigate it. Si sic capias υπερβάλλει, facile intelliges vim particulæ negativæ more Græco post negationem additæ. Cæterum ut hic articulus cum negativo verbo infinitivo præfigitur, sic apud Soph. Electr. v. 1079. legitur,*

‘ *Τό τε μὴ βλέπειν ἑτοίμα.*

It strikes us that instances of this might be multiplied, but we have not at present leisure to ransack our *Adversaria*.

We had plunged into the note on line 309. with a true philological spirit, and had just been convinced that Stanley was wrong in supposing the island of Salamis to be the object intended in the passage, — when lo! we were so charmed with the little Homeric hymn to Venus, quoted by Dr. Butler, that with all the audacity of *antiphilologist* (to which character, however, we beg not to plead generally guilty) we could not help relieving this “doughty war of words” with some less laborious notes. Hom. Hymn. 9. 4.

“ The Cyprian Venus is my song. From her
Flow the dear gifts, she only can confer,
Her brow of smiles a lovely wreath entwines,
And shades the beauty that beneath it shines.
Hail, goddess, guardian of an isle like this,
Queen of its pride, of well-built Salamis.
Grant me thy muse — thy soul-dissolving lays,
And other numbers shall renew thy praise.”

In the note on line 313. the editor well reproves that microscopic spirit of criticism, which would require historical accuracy in a poetical description. The references to Shakespeare are also happy; and, we may observe, they are much more frequent in these commentaries on Æschylus than in any other. See also 432.

At 395., after an *abstract* of the annotations of other critics, (that equally difficult and useful duty of the scholar who publishes a *variorum edition* of any classical author,) and an illustration of the parallel words ἐπιφλεγειν and *incendere*, Dr. Butler adds the following neat and apposite remark:

‘ *Recte Brunckius; hanc tamen metaphoram originem traxisse crediderim, a belli signo, e facibus jactis, ante tubas inventas usitato. Cf. Eurip. Phœniss. v. 1392.*

‘ *Ἐπεὶ δ’ ἀφείθη, πυρσὸς ὥς, Τυρσηνικῆς
Σάλπιγγος ἡχῇ, σῆμα φοινίε μάχης.*

V. 754. *Ἀνθρώποις γένηται τῷ Φθιάσαντος ἀεργαγῆ.*

Pauw and Abreschius are cited, and the editor then proceeds: '*Nullus hic est Colophonice quam vocant locus; sed hic constructio est γένεται ἀνθρώποις ἀπαρχὴ τῆ φθάσαντος, fiat hominibus præda occupantis.*' Then, having corrected the comment of Abreschius, the Doctor briefly touches on a collateral usage in Latin:

'*Atque ut brevissime extra oleas vager, moneo, quod hic locus suggerit, locum illum Lucani, Urbi pater est urbi que maritus quem citant grammatici, non revera exemplum Colophonice præbere, sed urbi ibi dativum esse rei, q. d. urbis causa. Hanc esse loci sententiam nemo qui contextum legerit vel tantillum dubitare potest.*'

At 764. is a very learned and ingenious note by the historian Muller; whose contributions to the *Variorum Æschylus* we have before mentioned with due praise. It is too long for our quotation, but will be read by the classical and the oriental scholar with much interest. The main object is to shew, from a comparison of Persian chronology (as far as it can be made out) with the more received Hebrew and Greek dates, that a sufficient *general* correspondence subsists between them, to strengthen the defence of the latter against the common objections, and especially against objections from this quarter. Only two things appear to us, perhaps from some misapprehension of our own, to want explanation in the historian's argument. First, if, as he properly admonishes us, such terms as Dshemshid and Zohak in Persian chronology are to be interpreted for periods, and not for monarchs; and if we have no data to settle even the number of individuals who reigned within such periods, much less to decide on the length of their reigns; how are we to come to any thing like a correct measurement of these unmarked oceans of time? Secondly, when the historian says, in summing up a list of Persian Kings, "*Hic Cyrus, Cambyses, Darius, et Xerxes interserendi — Memoriam apud Persas bella obscuraverunt, quæ in terris parum cognitæ, tandem etiam ingloriè gesta fuerant,*" are we not required to believe the Persian chronologers to have been a *pacific* race indeed, if they could have omitted such monarchs as these in their catalogue, and for the reason here assigned? To say nothing of the others (even of Cambyses) the *armament of Xerxes* might be likely enough to be remembered by the whole of Asia: How it should be forgotten in *Persia*, we own ourselves at a loss to conceive.

Dr. Butler has added a clear summary of the opinions of the most eminent chronologers on these disputed points, and has referred to many other authorities. The whole note is extremely valuable.

At v. 780. we were pleased with the following honest panegyric of Muller on the learning of *Æschylus*. "*Æschylum cunctis reliquis eruditiorē vides; nec contemnebat altum ingenium arida, dum vera essent.*" It is impossible to withhold a smile at this unconscious admiration of personal qualities. These "*arida, dum vera,*" had a charm for the learned German himself; and to see them associated with the "*altum ingenium*" no doubt inspired him with a reflected pleasure.

We must pass on to 874., and here conclude our references to the *Persæ*. This is a geographical note of much merit, although short: but on subjects of geography the editor, from his own luminous elementary work, might be expected to afford the most useful information to the student of *Æschylus*.

We come now to the eighth volume, and first to the *Fragments* of *Æschylus*; whether so called with certainty, or with more or less probability considered as floating planks of the tragic vessels originally launched by him, who fought at Salamis as gloriously as he sang at Athens. In our notice of this portion of the profoundly learned work before us, we must be brief indeed. We can only assist the inquiries of the scholar, and endeavour to give some general estimate of the labours of the present editor.

Large additions have been made by Dr. B. to the collections of Stanley, and of other editors. Many of the *Certain Fragments* are now first brought together, and submitted to the student of *Æschylus* in their proper place and in an amended form. Some of these seem to have been collected from authors to whom a Commentator on *Æschylus* would naturally be led, but others lie widely out of that sphere of reading. All the *Incerta*, from No. 167. to the end, No. 205., have been added by this editor, as we learn from a modest intimation at the bottom of page 251.; and they imply an extent of research, and an unwearied diligence of application to the *one chosen subject*, for which we know not where to find a parallel in the days of modern scholarship.

Among these new collections, we would refer to Nos. 167. 174. 179. 202. as instances of judicious explanation, and of the happy restitution of passages, by the use of that metrical skill which is so prominent throughout the work.

Among the *Incerta*, previously collected, but newly discussed by Dr. Butler, we would mention the following as having received additional illustration. No. 5. a successful emendation of the text, very probably that of *Æschylus*.

5. an imitation of Pindar detected in some unknown author; 27. 29. which last we must quote, as a good specimen of the respectful but powerful manner in which the present classical combatant discusses *with Hannibal* their common art of war.

v. 2. Μέγιστον ἱάμα. Μέγ' ἔστ' ἱάμα post Scal. Grotius, non cogitante Porsono, qui in notula ad Præf. ad Hecubam hæc scribit. Non tamen dissimulabo suspicionem meam vocabulum ἱάμα senioris ævi esse et veteribus tragicis ignotum Si igitur ἱάμα vitiosum esse statuas legendum erit, ὅσπερ μέγιστον φάρμακον πολλῶν κακῶν." Hic est unus ex illis locis rarissimis ubi a viro summo tuto possis succedere. Nam ut prætermittam sententiam sic minus forte constatnam videri, omisso ἔστι, ut nihil dicam de ipsa emendatione, audaciori quam pleræque Porsonianæ, ad ductum literarum ut plurimum feliciter exactæ, ut taceam verbum ἰᾶσθαι ab omnibus tragicis frequentatum, hoc ipsum vocabulum ἱάμα exstat apud Thucyd. II. 51. ἐν τῇ αὐτῇ κατίστη ἱάμα, ὃ, τι χεῖν προσφέροντας ὠφελεῖν. Quam vellem levis hic error viri incomparabilis, tot ac tam præclaris meritis millies redemptus, imperitos adolescentes ab importuna corrigendi prurigine et conjecturarum licentia absterret.

We can only give our readers the following clues to various information: Nos. 38, 39. 46. 93. 128.; and now we arrive at the numerous and laborious *Indices*; which complete the *Apparatus Æschyleus* in the most satisfactory manner. As far as we have been able to examine them, each of these useful additions to the work is executed in a correct and masterly style. The first of them is intitled *Index Æschyleus, Auctore J. De La Roche, Basiliensi*; which is very ample, and we believe very accurate. It is adapted to the text of Stanley, but answers the general purpose of reference to any phrase in *Æschylus*; and it occupies above a hundred closely printed pages, with double columns. The second is an *Index rerum de quibus agitur in Notis Stanleianis*; the third is an *Index verborum* (that is, of Greek phrases) illustrated in the same notes; and the fourth is an index of the authors whose text is corrected or explained by Stanley. Thus is the monument to the memory of this liberal and excellent scholar most handsomely completed by Dr. Butler. It is rare indeed that a departed worthy in the commonwealth of letters finds so able and so generous a successor to resuscitate his honours; and the University of Cambridge has reason to be proud of both her sons, whose literary fame will here go down to posterity together. We shall not undertake the invidious task of assigning his portion to each: nor is it necessary: the unlearned would be little profited by the comparison, and the learned will readily make it for themselves.

The *Indices* that are subjoined relate first to the critical, and, secondly, to the philological notes. There are two in each division; an index of reference to explanations; and an *Index Græcitatibus*. They are excellent, in their way: but they certainly confirm the opinion which we before entertained, that the separation of the notes into *critical* and *philological* was occasionally arbitrary, although generally useful.

An index of authors '*qui emendantur in Notis Variorum*,' and another of authors '*qui laudantur in Scholiis Æschyli*,' succeed to the above. This formidable list is concluded by the most curious specimen of learning that, perhaps, the whole work has manifested: viz. an index of passages in which Æschylus is cited by antient authors, drawn up (as all the above *indices* have been, except the first,) by the indefatigable editor himself. This index extends to above twenty pages, closely printed, in double columns; and two striking indications of extraordinary research are observable in it: First, that it includes (as far as our observation or memory can guide us in the assertion) every Greek writer, from Homer to the Byzantine historians; and, secondly, that there are many examples in which a reference is made to Æschylus '*sine auctoris nomine*,' '*nullo auctore nominato*,'—and, consequently, in which the editor's own various reading must have been his only guide,—in which an index of quotations at the end of each particular writer could not lead to the discovery.

We next come to the 'Preface;' making the first last; and, truly, if a comprehensive survey of the whole field of criticism, ploughed, sown, reaped, and *brought home* in this distinguished work, be useful at the summing up of its merits, this preface is well placed: but here we can only quote a passage or two, and refer to several more. We shall take the least attractive matters first in order.

Among his numerous principal or auxiliary materials, whether manuscript or printed, of Æschylus, of which the editor gives a detail in the preface, and to which in the task of collation and examination he seems to have paid the closest personal attention, he inserts a brief history of the *Codex Bibliothecæ Laurentianæ Mediceæ*, as far as its collation by Professor Salvini is concerned, in the year 1715, for Peter Needham, who was then projecting a new edition of Æschylus. As, however, this projected edition failed; as the collation above mentioned fell into the hands of Askew, together with several others; and as their fruits were recorded on the margin of the common Stanley by the said

Askew; Dr. B. naturally designates them, in a compendious form, as 'Ask. A. B. C. D.' Askew, it will be observed, not only put forth a specimen of his intended edition, but had, as it appears, collected a large *Critica Supellex* for the purpose. Consequently, with Burton and Schutz, the present editor adopted the established mode of designation. Will it be believed, by liberal readers, that *for doing this* he has fallen under the censure of any contemporary scholars? Strong indeed must he be, who presents only such a point of attack. See preface, pages 4. and 5.

Let us now turn from the bibliographical description of this work to more classical subjects.

The general merits of *Æschylus* are admirably condensed in the opening of the preface; and a dignified and scholar-like brevity is manifested in what is said on so exhausted a subject. We prefer, however, to call the attention of the scholar to two passages on the character of Stanley; to which (as we have frequently observed) the editor is most liberally anxious to do the justice that all will require and all will praise. With these quotations we shall close our review of the *VARIORUM ÆSCHYLUS*. The matter, which such passages contain, affords ample subject of reflection to the scholar; and, when he has digested it, let him rise from the perusal, anxious to emulate the candour as well as to attain the knowledge of this learned editor.

Hactenus de suâ editione Stanleius, quæ et pulcherrima est et præstantissima, prioribus longe ornatior. Quid in eâ præstiterit pro suâ verecundiâ leviter tantum attigit. Primus autem versionem adjecit Latinam, et commentarium omnium laudibus meritó semper cumulatum, multâque et reconditâ doctrinâ refertissimum. Felicem quidem illam in syllabis perpendendis diligentiam, quæ hodiè unicé in pretio est apud eos qui se aliqui esse volunt, non ita sectatus est, ut omnem scientiam in eâ exercendâ atque in fragmentis veterum atque obscurorum auctorum emendandis positam esse judicaret, neque tamen illam aut ignoravit, aut prorsus neglexit, sed inter doctrinæ subsidia habuit, nec unam quidem portiunculam pro tota excolendam sibi proposuit, nec ostentandi causa aliorum errores studiosè persecutus est. Non enim quicquid aliis detrahere potuisset sibi continuo additum existimavit, nec in malignam cavillationem viro liberali indignissimam unquam delapsus est. Æquum scilicet criticum agebat, qui neminem quis laudibus privare voluit, aut æqualium suorum famam malevolè ac rectè lædere. Igitur ad digladiationes istas criticas, quæ rem literariam dehonestant, nunquam descendit; in phrasibus ac sententiis expediendis, in antiquitate explicandâ, in poetæ, quem, sibi edendum nūmserat, mente atque consilio illustrando, in veterum vitâ, moribus, institutis describendis, satis largam sibi materiem invenit, quam nemo, nisi cum fructu consulat. Itaque labores ejus, ut par erat, magno doctorum consensu sunt approbati, ipseque inter æquales suos, non spernendos

spernendos viros, magni semper habitus est, quorum quædam testimonia quæ secundæ Æschyli editioni, a Stanleio adornata, illustrandæ inserviant, ex ipsius MStis hic afferre in rem erit.

Then follow the letters and the testimonies of some learned men (Vossius, Grævius, Casaubon, &c.) relating to the merits of Stanley's *Æschylus*. We subjoin the remaining passage which we proposed to quote; and which is worthy, both from its spirit and its expression, of all classical sympathy and approbation.

*‘ Sin aliqui fuerint qui Stanleium malæ fidei insimulent, quod hæc conjecturas * non ubique ad veros auctores retulerit, næ isti ex sump-
tuo ingenio potius quam æqua ac liberali mente de illo judicium faciunt.
An quis eum ita infima doctorum in plebe delituisse existimat, ita
parum de Æschylo, de Æliano, de ipsa denique quanta quanta sit
Græcorum philosophia meritum, ut misellam sibi gloriolam unius atque
alterius conjecturæ surreptione sibi quæreretur, ac non potius inter
primores sui sæculi viros suis meritis ac doctrina enituisse? Quis non
æquius judicabit istiusmodi crimen ad incuriam, infirmitatem hu-
manam, festinationem vel memoriæ lapsum, quam fraudem ac malam
fidem referre. Præsertim cum Stanleius priusquam editionem se-
cundam, ex qua hoc crimen maxima ex parte ei objicitur, aut in lucem
protulisset, aut etiam præfatione qua subsidia sua doceret et suum
cuique redderet, adornasset, morte præreptus est. Absit illud pro-
fecto, ut viris ingenio, humanitate, doctrina illustribus, post mortem
calumniemur. Nec meum ita comparatum sit ingenium, ut aliquid
ingeniis humaniorum artium ac literarum cultoribus detrachere stu-
deam; cum vivis sine odio atque invidiâ ita versari velim, ut liberum
atque ab iisdem studiis haud alienum decet, de mortuis silere malim,
quam maledicere, atque ut vivis, ubi fert occasio, plaudere, ita
SEPULTIS PARCERE.’*

We shall only add that, subsequently to writing the above, the Doctor furnishes us, at the conclusion of his preface, from the correspondence of continental scholars, and from his own inspection of manuscripts, with every corroboration of his defence of Stanley.

At some future period, we hope to announce the publication of the *Text of Æschylus*, as amended by Dr. Butler but we cannot inform our readers in what state it is at present.

* Some critical remarks and conjectural emendations of Casaubon, Pearson, and other learned men, which Stanley has been accused of silently accumulating among the various preparations for his second edition, are here intended.

ART. VII. *The Lockhart Papers:* containing Memoirs and Commentaries upon the Affairs of Scotland from 1702 to 1715, by George Lockhart, Esq. of Carnwath: his secret Correspondence with the Son of King James II. from 1718 to 1728; and his other Political Writings. Also, Journals and Memoirs of the young Pretender's Expedition in 1745, by Highland Officers in his Army. Published from original Manuscripts in the Possession of Anthony Aufrere, Esq. of Hoveton, Norfolk. 2 Vols. 4to. pp. 616. and 586. 5l. 5s. Boards. Anderson, Piccadilly.

MR. LOCKHART of Carnwath, in Lanarkshire, was a country-gentleman of an antient family, who had for some time held a seat in the parliament of Scotland, and had attained middle age, at the time (1702) when he began these Memoirs; and he continued to be the representative of the county of Lanark during the remaining sessions of the Scottish parliament, the existence of which was closed by the union of that kingdom with England in 1707. He was in the habit of carefully noting the most remarkable debates, and of preserving all papers that were likely to illustrate questions of importance, with the intention at first of publishing only a small volume: but the necessity of completing, by farther papers, the investigations which he had begun, drew him insensibly into the preparation of MSS. of great length. All these he meant carefully to preserve until the lapse of time, and the death of the men who were more particularly implicated by his disclosures, should remove the objections to publication: but this prudent plan was unfortunately disappointed as to a part of the papers, a friend to whom he had lent the MS. having improperly intrusted it to a copyist, who took a duplicate, and found means to get it printed under the title of "*Memoirs of the Affairs of Scotland, from Queen Anne's Accession (1702) to the Union with England in 1707.*" 8vo. London. 1714."

This book included many private anecdotes affecting individuals of rank and political importance, and it would be difficult to describe the bustle caused, both in England and Scotland, by its publication: it passed through repeated editions: the persons principally accused declared it to be full of falsehoods: but others, without admitting the accuracy of particular assertions, had the candour to own in general terms that it contained much truth. Mr. Lockhart, however, always regarded the publication as extremely unfortunate; the copy used being very incorrect, many sentences being omitted or perverted, and the whole being entirely unsuitable in point of time, as affecting the peace of mind of many living characters. The most singular cir-

cumstance was its being ushered in by an introduction, composed for the almost unprecedented purpose of depreciating the book with which it was connected, and charging the writer not only with disloyalty but with unfounded accusations of the leading men on the side of the Protestant succession, such as the Dukes of Queensberry and Roxburgh, the Earls of Stair, Marchmont, and others. This hostile tract called forth immediately an anonymous vindication of the *Memoirs* by Mr. Lockhart; who, without affording a clue to the author of the MS., combated in the strongest terms the allegations against his veracity. This rejoinder ended the controversy; and the public have ever since continued deprived of most of Mr. Lockhart's papers, the printed part forming only a fourth of the whole. The author having, in the decline of life, prepared all his MSS. for the press, deposited them in a place of security, with an injunction to his heirs to preserve them carefully till the year 1750: by which time he conceived the objections to publication would have ceased, and it would become a duty to the world to commit them to its inspection. The publication, however, was delayed by various causes, first from Mr. L.'s descendants having participated in the rebellion of 1745, afterward by a long minority, and finally since 1802 by the detention in France of Mr. Aufreere, the brother-in-law of the last male descendant of the Lockharts. At last, the whole has appeared in a form and with a degree of accuracy suitable at once to the respectability of the author and the public interest of the papers.

Vol. I. consists first of the "*Memoirs of the Affairs of Scotland from 1702 to 1707*," being a corrected copy of the book that had before been published clandestinely. The occupy half of the volume, and are followed by farther "*Memoirs of the Affairs of Scotland, from 1707 to 1715*." The volume is concluded by a collection of speeches, letters &c. relative to that period.

Volume II. contains the correspondence between Mr. L. and the Pretender, son of James II., from 1716 to 1728; which is of such length as to occupy nearly three-fourths of the whole. It is followed by a journal and memoir of the expedition of the young Pretender into Scotland in 1745; a document also of considerable extent and interest, and which, though unconnected with Mr. L. personally, (as he died in 1732,) has a direct relation to the subject of his work.

One of the most interesting tasks of a writer of historical memoirs is to give a sketch of the life and character of the eminent men of the age; and for this purpose Mr. L.

possessed

possessed considerable advantages, having enjoyed the confidence of leading men in both parties, and being of such unsparing impartiality as to shew no indulgence even to his intimate friends and relations when their political conduct seemed open to reprehension. 'My indignation,' he adds, 'against those who betrayed the interest of Scotland is so great, that I never speak or write of them with calmness; but this may be forgiven since it has not induced me to deviate from truth.'—We extract, as a specimen, a part of the delineation of a character which could scarcely be affected by political feelings; we mean Fletcher of Saltoun, a name conspicuous in Scottish and not unknown to English history.

'Andrew Fletcher of Salton, in the first part of his life, did improve himself to a great degree by reading and travelling; he was always a great admirer of both ancient and modern republicks, and therefore the more displeas'd at some steps which he thought wrong in King Charles the Second's reign, whereby he drew upon himself the enmity of the ministers of that government, to avoid the evil consequences of which, he went abroad; during which time, his enemies' malice still continuing, he was on slight frivolous pretences summon'd to appear before the Privy Council, and their designs to ruin him being too apparent, he was so enrag'd that he concurred; and came over with the Duke of Monmouth, when he invaded England; upon which he was forfeited. Thereafter he came over with the Prince of Orange: but that prince was not many months in England, till he (Fletcher) saw his designs, and left him, and ever thereafter hated and appeared as much against him as any in the kingdom. Being elected a parliament man in the year 1703, he shew'd a sincere and honest inclination towards the honour and interest of his country. The thoughts of England's domineering over Scotland, was what his generous soul could not away with. The indignities and oppression Scotland lay under, gaul'd him to the heart; that in his learned and elaborate discourses he exposed them with undaunted courage and pathetick eloquence. He was bless'd with a soul that hated and despised whatever was mean and unbecoming a gentleman, and was so stedfast to what he thought right, that no hazard nor advantage, no not the universal empire, or the gold of America, could tempt him to yield or desert it. — He had a penetrating, clear and lively apprehension, but so extremely wedded to his own opinions, that there were few (and those too must be his beloved friends, and of whom he had a good opinion) he could endure to reason against him, and did for the most part so closely and unalterably adhere to what he advanc'd (which was frequently very singular) that he'd break with his party before he'd alter the least jot of his scheme and maxims; and therefore it was impossible for any set of men, that did not give up themselves to be absolutely directed by him, to please him, so as to carry him along in all points. And thence it came

to pass, that he often in parliament acted a part by himself, tho' in the main he stuck close to the country party, and was their Cicero. — To sum up all, he was a learned, gallant, honest, and every other way well accomplish'd gentleman; and if ever a man proposes to serve and merit well of his country, let him place his courage, zeal, and constancy as a pattern before him, and think himself sufficiently applauded and rewarded, by obtaining the character of being like Andrew Fletcher of Salton.'

In 1706, Mr. L. was appointed one of the commissioners for discussing the question of an union with England, a measure which he steadfastly opposed: but he found opposition in vain, and asserts (vol. i. p. 155.) that every material measure was settled beforehand by a few leading men; the objection so much urged in the letters and memoirs of the age being little else than manœuvres of the commissioners to gain credit for zeal in the cause of their respective constituents. He afterward discusses (vol. i. p. 262.) the very delicate question whether money was given to members of parliament in Scotland to favour this great measure: he inclines to the affirmative; and his suspicions receive confirmation from a document discovered in certain financial investigations in 1711, which recapitulates the division of a sum of nearly 10,000*l.* among the Scottish nobility and gentry; for example: the Earl of Marchmont, 1105*l.*; Earl of Cromarty, 300*l.*; Earl of Balcarras, 500*l.*; Duke of Roxburgh, 500*l.*, &c. These sums, however, appear very inadequate to procure the votes of men of such rank and property, and the official papers assert that they were given in payment of arrears of salary. We cannot but feel, indeed, a doubt of Mr. L.'s calmness, in any question connected with the union of the two kingdoms; and the following passage, while it affords a specimen of his plain, unadorned style, is curious as indicative of the political prejudices so long prevalent in Scotland against a measure now justly deemed the main-spring of her prosperity.

'That kind Providence which had supported Scotland so many hundreds of years, at last grew weary, and entirely deserted her after King James VI.'s accession to the throne of England. For the union of the two crowns may be reckoned the fatal æra from whence we are to commence Scotland's ruin. — For who is it that would not prefer the greatest hardships attended with liberty, to a state that deprived him of all means to defend himself against the oppressions that must inevitably follow? and who is it that could not foresee that such consequences would follow the union of the two crowns? We are told that when King James was preparing to go and take possession of his crown of England, his subjects of Scotland came to take their leave of him, and attend him part of his way thither with all the state and magnificence imaginable;

at amongst these numerous attendants, deck'd up in their finest apparel and mounted on their best horses, there appeared an old everend gentleman of Fyfe, cloathed all over in the deepest mourning. — He foresaw that England being a greater kingdom, made (as said Henry VII. when he gave his daughter to the King of Scotland, rather than the King of France) an acquisition of Scotland, and that the King would lie under a necessity of siding with and pleasing the most powerful of his two kingdoms, which were jealous of and rivals to one another, and that therefore, ever after the union of the crowns, the King would not mind, at least not encourage the trade of Scotland, and that all state affairs could be managed, laws made and observed, ministers of state put and turned out, as suited best with the interest and designs of England; by which means trade would decay, the people be oppressed, and the nobility and great men become altogether corrupted.'

These remarks apply to the partial union effected by the cession of James I. to the crown of England; which, however, left Scotland a separate state as to her parliament, her revenue, and her military establishment. In those respects, she was not amalgamated with the government of England until 1707; and it is curious to notice the antipathy with which this final and complete consolidation of the two nations was regarded on the northern side of the Tweed. We give a short passage from Mr. L.'s answer to the hostile writer (said to be Sir Dalrymple) of the introduction to the clandestine edition of his *Memoirs* :

But why does this Introductor reckon those who were against the Union and those against the Revolution in one and the same class? Does he not know that a great many Revolutioners opposed the Union? Hath he forgot that Sir David Dalrymple, when the British Parliament passed the act concerning treason in Scotland, frequently and publicly declared how much he was grieved and repented his having been so instrumentall in promoting the Union? And did he not post from Edinburgh to London how soon he heard there was a design to propose a dissolution of it, and did any man appear more frank for the measure than he? Did not the Earl of Ilay in all companies make this publick and constant toast, and write inscriptions on the tables in the taverns of Edinburgh, "To the dissolving of the Union?" And did not all of this stamp and kidney declare that the Union was untollerable, and that there was an absolute necessity of hazarding all rather than it was not dissolved? Did not the Scots members, Whigs as well as Tories, agree unanimously to the motion which was made in the House of Lords for dissolving it?

In 1708, on the election of members to the parliament of the United Kingdom, Mr. L. was, notwithstanding much opposition,

position, returned for the county of Edinburgh, and continued to sit till 1714. — One of the most interesting parts of his memoirs relates to an interview which he had with Lord Bolingbroke in 1714, at a time when the temporary co-operation of the Whigs and the Jacobites considerably retarded ministerial business in parliament. His Lordship, having sent for Mr. L. as a leading member among the Jacobites, professed his surprise that men of their sentiments should, for a moment, coalesce with the Whigs, and laid on his colleague Lord Oxford (Harley) the blame of any measures that had lately displeased the adherents of the Stuart family: but the time, added he, is now arrived when Lord O. with his partisans will be turned out; and when, parliament being prorogued, “there will be no power in existence to prevent the Queen from settling matters according to her wish;” — meaning, without directly expressing it, the settlement of the succession to the throne in the Stuart family. The effects of this singular communication on Mr. L. and his adherents were their concurrence in parliament with ministers, a speedy dispatch of the money-bills and other urgent affairs, a prorogation, and a confident anticipation (p. 479.) of measures in favour of the Stuarts; when the unexpected death of the Queen, the change of ministry, and the general concurrence in favour of the Hanoverian family, disappointed all their hopes. — Mr. L. now left London, repaired to Scotland, and took part with double zeal in behalf of the Stuarts, whom he had always hoped to see restored on the death of the Queen. His exertions, indeed, were such as to cause his arrest and imprisonment; measures which might have been followed by the forfeiture of his property, had not he fortunately possessed the attachment of a powerful friend at court, the Duke of Argyle. From this time forwards, he declined all attempts to sit in parliament, but resided in Scotland, and remained a cordial well-wisher and faithful correspondent of the son of James II. That prince, born in 1688 and alleged for a time to be a supposititious child, grew up in France, and ventured to try his fortune in the rebellion in Scotland in 1715, immediately after the accession of George I. Returning baffled from this expedition, he continued to live in France, and to cherish those hopes of eventual success which had been so long and so vainly entertained by his father. Mr. Lockhart, also, not discouraged by past failure, laboured to increase the number of the Prince's adherents in Scotland, transmitted to him frequent information of the political state of that country, and exerted *himself* for the cause in a manner which can be justified in our eyes

eyes only by the disinterestedness of his motives, and the sincerity of his conviction. Thus arose that long and zealous correspondence which fills the chief part of the second volume, and is replete with those fluctuations of hope and disappointment that mark so distinctly the difference between the agitation produced by circumstances in the moment of their occurrence, and the calm with which they are contemplated in a future age. Now that all is past, and that the present reigning family has been maintained on the throne without any serious struggle, we find a difficulty in accounting for the sanguine expectations cherished either in the time described by Mr. Lockhart or in the preceding age, which have been lately so clearly laid open to the public by the memoirs of James II. (See our last Review.)

The correspondence between Mr. Lockhart and the Stuarts continued from 1716 to 1726, when it was suddenly brought to a close, government having private advice of the transmission of a dispatch, and having secured the person to whom it was addressed. An order was now issued for the arrest of Mr. L.; who, however, effected his escape to Holland. Happily, the days of violence and persecution were gone: Mr. L.'s age and personal worth were duly appreciated; and, after an exile of little more than a year, he was apprized that he would be allowed to return, and re-occupy his paternal estate, without any other condition than that of repairing to London, and pledging his honour that he would no longer participate in measures hostile to the reigning family. He consequently left Rotterdam, and came to the British metropolis; where he was given to understand that he must wait personally on the king (George II.) and return him thanks. His act of submission was not a little galling to a man of spirit, who had grown grey in the opposite cause: but, finding that it had been made by others, who were men of un doubted honour, he acquiesced. His audience was short, and far from courteous on the part of the king; who said, (vol. ii. p. 398.) with some heat in his looks, "You have been long in a bad way, and I shall judge by your future conduct how far you deserve the favour I have shown you." The vexation of this ungracious reception was, however, lessened by the information that the late king had resolutely opposed all attempts to proceed against him, or his property, at a time when a number of persons at court called for that measure. How the discovery of the secret correspondence, and of the cypher in which it was conducted, was made, remained to him a mystery: but strong suspicions (vol. ii. p. 400.) hang over the Earl of Inverness, the confidential minister of the Pretender.

The

The individuals who had been arrested, and brought to examination, had at first acted manfully and refused to make any disclosure, but were eventually (vol. ii. p. 398.) won over by threats and persuasion to confess all that they knew, and to afford more than sufficient evidence to confiscate the property of Mr. L., if such had been the wish of government: but that gentleman, returning to Scotland, passed his few remaining years in quiet and retirement, leaving the care of the Pretender's interest to others, by whom it was zealously promoted till the failure of the rebellion of 1745 put an end to all their hopes.

Nothing can be more opposite to our feelings than partiality to the cause of the Stuarts, hostility to the Hanoverian succession, or regret at the union of England and Scotland: yet, though all these obnoxious doctrines enter into the creed of Mr. L., so much candour and so honourable a perseverance are manifested by him in a mistaken cause, that we continue attached to him throughout, and pardon his political errors in consideration of his personal respectability. A faithful servant, even to a bad master, still deserves the credit due to fidelity and zeal. His letters to the Pretender evince not only the most sincere attachment, but (vol. ii. p. 319. 380. 389.) very considerable penetration into the character of those who possessed the confidence of the royal exile. His style is the simple and unaffected language of a man who has never studied composition, but who records, as they occur, the impressions of his mind, or the facts which he has to communicate. The sentences are often very long; and the orthography, like that of most persons of the age, varies not only from our present standard but from that of the writer himself in different passages of the memoirs.

Mr. Hume took occasion, in his History of England, to apprise us that a parliament, adroitly managed, might be the cause of a much greater increase of taxation than it would be in the power of any monarch to accomplish under a despotic form of government. How far the present age has witnessed an exemplification of this alleged truth, our readers can be at no loss to judge: but few of them will expect an anticipation of this nature from Mr. Lockhart, who, in commenting on the conduct of Queen Anne's parliament regarding an inquiry into the public accounts, adds:

‘ It may seem odd that so wise a body of men as the members of the House of Commons are reputed, should act after such a manner, and whilst the nation pretends to enjoy and maintain a greater share of libertie than other people, the representatives thereof should neglect any means necessary or expedient towards controlling

controlling the management of those in public offices: but the truth on't is, tho' the English please themselves with the notion of libertie, it consists in nothing more than that they themselves are the instruments of their own slavery, being bubled and imposed upon by those in authority over them, more than any other nation in Europe. As for example, they value their Constitution much, because no taxes can be raised but by consent of Parliament; whilst at the same time greater taxes are imposed, and greater abuses committed in the application of them, than if the power was solely vested in the Sovereigne, — And this observation is not confined wholly to money matters, for in all other things the King is obliged, by bestowing offices and pensions, to make a majority in both Houses of Parliament on his side, the expence wherof comes of the people.'

The æra of our Revolution, and the conduct of the latter members of the Stuart family, have received much and unquestionable illustration by the recent appearance of the Life of James II., and by the present volumes; not by any means to overlook also the personal memoirs of Dr. King, reported in our Number for February last, which afford considerable insight into the character of the young Pretender. This unfortunate prince appears to some advantage, however, in a paper at the close of Mr. Lockhart's second volume, intitled 'The Young Pretender in France;' where his dignified indignation at his arrest by the orders of the French monarch is well manifested, and where his still *British* feelings excite our sympathy. When he was told that the Earl of Sussex and Lord Cathcart had arrived in Paris (November, 1748,) as hostages on the part of England for her due performance of the treaty lately formed with France, he publicly said that "the tables were sadly turned in England, since her word could not be relied upon without such pledges as are scarce ever granted but by a conquered nation;" and again: "Shameful concession, unworthy of a ministry not abandoned to all sense of honour and virtue! but if ever I mount the throne of my ancestors, Europe shall see me use my utmost endeavours to force France, in her turn, to send hostages to England." Having also struck some medals, with devices allusive to the glory of the British navy, and the Prince of Conti having sneeringly observed to him that this navy was not a good friend to him, he replied, "*Cela est vrai, Prince, mais je suis, nonobstant, l'ami de la flotte contre tous ses ennemis, comme je regarderai toujours la gloire de l'Angleterre comme la mienne; et sa gloire est dans sa flotte:*" — a sentiment worthy of every British prince, whether on the throne or not.

ART. VIII. *Mission from Cape Coast Castle to Ashantee, with a Statistical Account of that Kingdom, and Geographical Notices of other Parts of the Interior of Africa.* By T. Edward Bowdich, Esq. Conductor. 4to. pp. 522. 3l. 3s. Boards. Murray. 1819.

ON frequent and late occasions, we have accompanied our readers on expeditions of African discovery and research: but our journey has generally been over arid sands and pathless deserts, with Arab hordes and Moorish traders as the companions of our way. The present volume, however, offers scenes altogether different: we are about to usher our friends into royal courts, and to exhibit to them pageants of barbaric magnificence and savage splendor:

“*Barbarico postes auro, spoliisque superbos.*”

(Æn. ii. 504.)

The terrific ornaments of the halls of Dahomy have indeed, heretofore, been *bruited* by fame, and amplified by imagination: but to the present spectacles are given an “habitation and a name;” and such fictions as fancy draws have here received testimony and corroboration, to which even the incredulous cannot but assent. It will not, therefore, surprise our readers if we avail ourselves of an opportunity of rare occurrence, and describe with some degree of detail the pomp and circumstance of the kingdom of Ashantee. It happens fortunately for such a purpose that the author, whom we follow as our guide, seems to combine in no ordinary degree those qualifications, which are most requisite in a recorder of facts and a delineator of men and manners; and it must be obvious to those who peruse Mr. Bowdich’s work, that it marks its author as a gentleman of liberal learning and attainments. As a political agent, also, his character appears to merit high commendation: for he met with trials in which promptitude of determination, resolution in action, and consistent firmness in persevering, were required by the circumstances of no ordinary kind of diplomacy.

Respecting the causes of the embassy, and the minutes of it, we intend to say but little. The latter would, indeed, be an unpleasant task, since it must necessarily involve us in a question from which we are anxious to remain free: the gentleman, who was originally placed at the head of the mission, having exhibited in the eyes of his companions those marks of irresolution in seasons of doubt and peril, which induced them to supersede him in his office, and to negotiate in his place, on their own responsibility. In these steps Mr. Bowdich was *the most prominent*; and his justification of such a measure necessarily

necessarily occupies some of his pages. Of the mode in which he discharged an office thus assumed, we have already given our opinion, which may incidentally be corroborated by succeeding pages.

The first Ashantee army, that ever reached the coast, is reported to have made its way there in 1807.* The distance, indeed, may be deemed inconsiderable; for, if we rightly collect it from the journey of the present travellers, it cannot much exceed one hundred miles: but, in a subsequent part of the work, it appears that Coomassie, the capital, is about 146 miles from Annamaboe on the coast. The difficulties of communication, however, necessarily increase the labours of such an expedition in a manner which we are unable to calculate, and may be said, therefore, to augment virtually the distance itself. In 1811, a second army appeared with more terrible havoc and devastation, involving the Fantee territory (the country about Cape-Coast Castle) in all the miseries of famine, and displaying revolting instances of unmitigated cruelty. To avert a recurrence of such calamities from a defenceless people;—to insure security to our own settlements, which might in various ways feel the effects of them, —and if possible to extend the boundaries of commerce, by opening new avenues to it, were the prominent purposes of the mission here recorded; which, leaving Cape-Coast Castle on the 22d of April, 1817, reached its destination at Coomassie, the capital of Ashantee, on the 20th of the following month.

This journey was by no means deficient in scenes of picturesque interest, heightened by novelties in the combination of foliage to which the European eye was unaccustomed. The uncleaned paths, however, presented all sorts of obstructions, and were occasionally swampy, and even deeply covered with water. The Fantee crooms or villages were desolate from the effects of the Ashantee warfare; while those in the Assin territories, of a far superior character, contained comfortable dwellings, much cleanliness in the interior of them, and a cheerful and respectful population; and the small towns within the Ashantee boundary did not exhibit much difference from them, except that the inhabitants were not quite so orderly. At length, we arrive at the capital, and have the first specimen of native African display. †

* The Ashantee nation is said to have become first known to Europeans by fame about 1700. Succeeding years have added very little to our knowledge of its boundaries, resources, or manners.

† The latitude of Coomassie is $6^{\circ} 34' 50''$ N., longitude $2^{\circ} 11'$ W.

‘ We entered Coomassie at two o’clock, passing under a fetich, or sacrifice of a dead sheep, wrapped up in red silk, and suspended between two lofty poles. Upwards of 5000 people, the greater part warriors, met us with awful bursts of martial music, discordant only in its mixture; for horns, drums, rattles, and gong-gongs were all exerted with a zeal bordering on phrenzy, to subdue us by the first impression. The smoke which encircled us from the incessant discharges of musquetry, confined our glimpses to the foreground; and we were halted whilst the captains performed their Pyrrhic dance, in the centre of a circle formed by their warriors; where a confusion of flags, English, Dutch, and Danish, were waved and flourished in all directions; the bearers plunging and springing from side to side, with a passion of enthusiasm only equalled by the captains, who followed them, discharging their shining blunderbusses so close, that the flags now and then were in a blaze; and emerging from the smoke with all the gesture and distortion of maniacs. Their followers kept up the firing around us in the rear. The dress of the captains was a war cap, with gilded ram’s horns projecting in front, the sides extended beyond all proportion by immense plumes of eagles’ feathers, and fastened under the chin with bands of cowries. Their vest was of red cloth, covered with fetishes and saphies (charms) in gold and silver; and embroidered cases of almost every colour, which flapped against their bodies as they moved, intermixed with small brass bells, the horns and tails of animals, shells, and knives; long leopard’s tails hung down their backs, over a small bow covered with fetishes. They wore loose cotton trowsers, with immense boots of a dull red leather, coming half way up the thigh, and fastened by small chains to their cartouch or waist belt; these were also ornamented with bells, horses’ tails, strings of amulets, and innumerable shreds of leather; a small quiver of poisoned arrows hung from their right wrist, and they held a long iron chain between their teeth, with a scrap of Moorish writing affixed to the end of it. A small spear was in their left hands, covered with red cloth and silk tassels; their black countenances heightened the effect of this attire, and completed a figure scarcely human.’

This was [merely a prelude to a scene which very far exceeded the expectation of the travellers, even heightened as it was by such a preparation:

‘ An area of nearly a mile in circumference was crowded with magnificence and novelty. The king, his tributaries, and captains, were resplendent in the distance, surrounded by attendants of every description, fronted by a mass of warriors which seemed to make our approach impervious. The sun was reflected, with a glare scarcely more supportable than the heat, from the many gold ornaments, which glistened in every direction. More than a hundred bands burst at once on our arrival, with the peculiar airs of their several chiefs; the horns flourished their defiance, with the beating of innumerable drums and metal instruments, and then yielded for a while to the soft breathings of their long
flutes,

futes, which were truly harmonious; and a pleasing instrument, like a bagpipe without the drone, was happily blended. At least a hundred large umbrellas, or canopies, which could shelter thirty persons, were sprung up and down by the bearers with brilliant effect, being made of scarlet, yellow, and the most shewy cloths and silks, and crowned on the top with crescents, pelicans, elephants, barrels, and arms and swords of gold; they were of various shapes, but mostly dome; and the valances (in some of which small looking-glasses were inserted) fantastically scalloped and fringed; from the fronts of some, the proboscis and small teeth of elephants projected, and a few were roofed with leopard skins, and crowned with various animals naturally stuffed. The state hammocks, like long cradles, were raised in the rear, the poles on the heads of the bearers; the cushions and pillows were covered with crimson taffeta, and the richest cloths hung over the sides. Innumerable small umbrellas, of various coloured stripes, were crowded in the intervals, whilst several large trees heightened the glare, by contrasting the sober colouring of nature.

‘ “ *Discolor unde auri per ramos aura refulsit.* ”

‘ The king’s messengers, with gold breast-plates, made way for us, and we commenced our round, preceded by the canes and the English flag. We stopped to take the hand of every caboceer, which, as their household suites occupied several spaces in advance, delayed us long enough to distinguish some of the ornaments in the general blaze of splendour and ostentation.’

“ The exceed of gold,” as an old traveller on the Gambia said, surpassed all belief. Wolves’ and rams’ heads, as large as life, cast in gold, were suspended from gold handled swords; rude lumps of gold hung from the left wrist of the chiefs and officers, so weighty as to be supported by slaves: costly foreign silks had been unravelled to enrich their embroidery: the skins of leopards formed the sheaths of their swords: the chairs were of dark wood inlaid with ivory, and embossed with gold; and fans made of the wings of the ostrich played around the dignitaries. In writing this sentence, we have specified only a very few out of the numberless extravagant but magnificent appendages that were exhibited. A party of Moors afforded the first general diversity of dress:

‘ There were seventeen superiors, arrayed in large cloaks of white satin, richly trimmed with spangled embroidery, their shirts and trowsers were of silk, and a very large turban of white muslin was studded with a border of different coloured stones: their attendants wore red caps and turbans, and long white shirts, which hung over their trowsers; those of the inferiors were of dark blue cloth: they slowly raised their eyes from the ground as we passed, and with a most malignant scowl.’

We must confine ourselves to the person of the king, without entering on the subject of his dress or that of his immediate attendants: suffice it to say that they not only exceeded, in the precious nature of the materials, any regal ornaments that we recollect to have seen described, but were singularly remarkable for delicacy of workmanship, and not without taste in their combination. The king's deportment first excited Mr. Bowdich's attention. 'Native dignity, in persons we are pleased to call barbarous, was a curious spectacle: his manners were majestic but courteous; and he did not allow his surprize to beguile him for a moment of the composure of the monarch; he appeared to be about thirty-eight years of age, inclined to corpulence, and of a benevolent countenance.' The number of warriors present at this scene, of which we have been able to afford no adequate representation, was estimated by our travellers at 30,000. Some inhuman spectacles were blended with this display of magnificence: persons undergoing torment previously to sacrifice being paraded before the visitors: the drums being braced round with human thigh-bones, and ornamented with skulls; and the public executioner, as if in mockery of human suffering, appearing with a hatchet of gold suspended from his breast, and standing before an execution-block that was clotted with blood and partially covered with a call of fat.

A range of spacious but ruinous buildings formed the residence of the embassy; whence Mr. Bowdich at different times dispatched memoirs of his transactions that constituted, in their original form, the materials of the first of the two parts into which his volume is divided. To this first part we restrict ourselves on the present occasion; with the intention of examining, in our next Review, the latter and statistical half of the work. In extracting remarks from these details we shall attend rather to such points as are illustrative of the court and people, than historical of the mission.

The monarch, though he shewed many marks of kindness to his guests, and was profuse in his acknowledgements of the superiority of white men over his own subjects, appears to have been of a very irascible temperament. The pleasure which he took in the works of European art that were presented to him, and the laudable curiosity which he evinced in inquiring into their purposes and manufacture, give a very favourable impression of him: but, actuated by the instigations of the Moors, who were decidedly hostile to the mission, and by some disappointments in not receiving the full satisfaction which he expected in several of the *palavers*, he frequently

frequently burst into fits of ungovernable passion. In these instances, his predominant feeling seems to have been that the object of our countrymen was simply to make a fool of him; and his extraordinary suspicion, indeed, in a barbaric prince, drew his beard into his mouth, bit it, and, rising abruptly from his seat, exclaimed, "Shantee foo! Shantee fod! ah ah!" — to which he added an assurance that, if black men had brought him such explanations as those that were given by the mission, he would have cut their heads off. On such an occasion, the original conductor of the mission being silent, Mr. Bowdich rose, and with combined energy and discretion addressed the sovereign, explaining the motives of the mission with such marked appearance of sincerity, that conviction flashed across the face of the interpreter, and he must have done justice to the speech, for the cheerful aspect of the morning was resumed in every countenance.* It was impossible that these suspicions should not recur in subsequent interviews, but they returned with diminished force, and were ultimately overcome. The following is a description of the palace at Coomassie in which the palavers were held:

On Saturday we were summoned to the King, and waited as usual a considerable time in one of the outer courts of the palace, which is an immense building of a variety of oblong courts and regular squares; the former with arcades along the one side, some of round arches symmetrically turned, having a skeleton of bamboo; the entablatures exuberantly adorned with bold fan and trellis work of Egyptian character. They have a suit of rooms over them, with small windows of wooden lattice, of intricate but regular carved work, and some have frames cased with thin gold. The squares have a large apartment on each side, open in front, with two supporting pillars, which break the view and give it all the appearance of the proscenium or front of the stage of the older Italian theatres. They are lofty and regular, and the cornices of a very bold cane-work in alto relievo. A drop-curtain of curiously plaited cane is suspended in front, and in each we observed chairs and stools embossed with gold, and beds of silk, with scattered regalia. The most ornamented part of the palace is the residence of the women. We have passed through it once; the fronts of the apartments were closed (except two open door-ways) by pannels of curious open carving, conveying a striking resemblance at first sight to an early Gothic screen; one was entirely closed, and had

* The reader should be aware that those passages which, in the account of the transactions of the mission, express a high opinion of the merits of Mr. Bowdich, are not from his own pen: they occur in the dispatches to which his coadjutors, Mr. Hutchison and Mr. Techie, were parties.

two curious doors of a low arch, and strengthened or battened with wood-work, carved in high relief and painted red. Doors chancing to open as we passed, surprised us with a glimpse of large apartments in corners we could not have thought of, the most secret appeared the most adorned. In our daily course through the palace there is always a delay of some minutes, before the door of each of the several distinct squares is unlocked; within the inmost square is the council chamber.'

The diary proceeds with visits of ceremony, palavers, occasional instances of illness, and some accounts of human sacrifices. At first, the members of the mission were strictly confined to their own dwelling: but afterward Mr. Bowdich was accommodated with a horse by the king, and complimented by him on his equestrian skill. Ultimately, these restrictions were still more relaxed. The first private visit paid by Mr. Bowdich was to Baba the chief Moor; at whose residence he met with another Moor, who expressed no surprize at beholding a white man, having previously seen three, as he stated, at Boussa. This circumstance naturally led to inquiry; and the answer seems to afford a fair presumption that Mr. B. obtained a true statement of the end of the unfortunate Park. It does not differ widely from that which is already in circulation.

' " Some years ago, a vessel with masts suddenly appeared on the Quolla or Niger near Boussa, with three white men, and some black. The natives encouraged by these strange men, took off provisions for sale, were well paid, and received presents besides: it seems the vessel had anchored. The next day, perceiving the vessel going on, the natives hurried after her, (the Moor protested from their anxiety to save her from some sunken rocks, with which the Quolla abounds,) but the white men mistaking, and thinking they pursued for a bad purpose, deterred them. The vessel soon after struck, the men jumped into the water and tried to swim, but could not, for the current, and were drowned. He thought some of their clothes were now at Wauwaw, but he did not believe there were any books or papers." '

At the same place, Mr. B. occasionally met with Moors from different parts of Africa, who afforded much information of the interior: but their general views of geography were not very profound, being about equal to those of the Turkish minister who feared the arrival of a Russian fleet from Petersburg by way of the Adriatic sea. One large continent, encircled by a sea, and bounded by a girdle of rocks, was their map of the world. The Moors were fortunately so far conciliated by these constant visits as to forward certificates and letters of recommendation to the interior; which, it is to be hoped, may be useful to such persons of Major Peddie's expedition as still survive.

On the 25th of August, the members of the mission were invited to dine with the king, whom they had followed from his capital on an expedition. The feast was not merely plentiful but elegant.

About two o'clock dinner was announced. We had been taught to prepare for a surprise, but it was exceeded. We were conducted to the eastern side of the croom, to a door of green reeds, which excluded the crowd, and admitted us through a short avenue to the king's garden, an area equal to one of the large squares in London. The breezes were strong and constant. In the centre, four large umbrellas of new scarlet cloth were fixed, under which was the king's dining table (heightened for the occasion), and covered in the most imposing manner; his massy plate was well disposed, and silver forks, knives, and spoons (Colonel Torrance's) were plentifully laid. The large silver waiter supported a roasting pig in the centre; the other dishes on the tables were roasted ducks, fowls, stews, pease pudding, &c. &c. On the ground on one side of the table were various soups, and every sort of vegetable; and elevated parallel with the other side, were oranges, pines, and other fruits; sugar-candy, Port and Madeira wine, spirits and Dutch cordials, with glasses.

The superiority which the natives attribute to Europeans is whimsically illustrated in the imitation of our mode of dress by the monarch; who, notwithstanding the magnificence of his own wardrobe, was seen on one occasion to bedeck himself in a manner affording a most ludicrous caricature: little differing, indeed, except in the better state of repair in which his clothes were exhibited, from some of the chieftains on the Congo river as seen by Captain Tuckey. He wore an old-fashioned court suit of the French General Daendels, of brown velveteen, embroidered with silver thistles, with an English epaulette sown on each shoulder; 'the coat coming close round the knees, from which the flaps of the waistcoat were not very distant. A cocked hat bound with gold lace, in shape like that of an English coachman, white shoes, the long silver-headed cane we presented to him, mounted with a crown, as a walking stick, and a small dirk round his waist.' Such is the picture of a royal *Dandy* at Ashantee. It was impossible to make this people comprehend how any conventional signs, such as are used in writing, could represent an object; and the king remarked that his name, when written, bore no resemblance to his person. At first they were averse to the drawing of sketches, but, when the king was told that it never would be believed in England that the mission had visited him, unless they took back drawings with them, he was satisfied; and, so universally predominant

is personal vanity, whether professed or concealed, he begged
"to be drawn handsome."

The treaty was at length signed on the 27th of September, and appears to comprize all those points which a well regulated policy would suggest on the part of our colony. By the fifth article, the King of Ashantee agrees to permit a British officer to reside constantly at his capital, for the purpose of preserving a regular communication with the Governor at Cape-Cast Castle; and, by the ninth, it is stipulated that the royal children shall be committed to the care of the Governor, at that settlement, for the purpose of education. These are important results, if no others had been attained; and they offer greater opportunities for farther investigation in the interior of Africa than any means that have yet been acquired. Mr. Hutchison was left as resident; and we cannot doubt the firmness of a man, who in an early stage of this business signs his name in conjunction with Mr. Bowdich and Mr. Tedlie to the following concluding paragraph of a dispatch:

"But, gentlemen, if in your better knowledge and reflection, you cannot consistently with your honour, and your trust, meet the king's demand, the history of our country has fortified our minds with the illustrious example of a Vanartart, and his colleagues who were situated as we are, when the dawn of British intercourse in India was scarcely more advanced, than its dawn in Africa is now; and their last request to their council is our present conclusion to you, — "Do not put our lives in competition with the honour and interests of our country."

We have an impression on our minds that Mr. Hutchison has since been succeeded by Mr. Dupuis; of whom, as Consul at Mogadore, our readers may possibly recollect the mention in our account of the narrative of Adams, the American seaman. (See our Review for January, 1817, vol. I. p. 100.) The fact may be stated somewhere in this volume, but, if the passage has escaped our remembrance,

The perils experienced by Mr. Bowdich in his return were of no contemptible nature; and, as they afford some knowledge of the state of the way between the kingdom of Ashantee and the coast, we will cite a passage referring to them. It is to be hoped, as the King of Ashantee evinced much personal attachment to this gentleman, that these circumstances, if they reached his ear, may accelerate his professed intention of opening a regular mode of intercourse with the coast, without which commerce must meet with obstacles almost insuperable.

As the stage from Doompassie had been short, (although fatiguing,) I determined to proceed to Akrofrom, as we should gain a day by it. The Ashantees remonstrated, knowing the swollen state of the several small rivers, and the aggravated difficulties of the path from the heavy rain; but I was so apprehensive of being detained, by their pleading their superstitious observance of good and bad days for travelling, that I was afraid of seeming to yield to them, lest it might encourage the disposition. I recommended them to go back, and started without them, but they were soon at my heels, declaring, they should lose their heads if they quitted us. Mr. Tedlie, myself, a soldier, and the Ashantee next in authority under the captain, outwalked the rest of the party, and we found ourselves out of their hearing when it grew dark. We lost some time in trying to make torches to keep off the beasts, and to direct us in the right tract, for we were walking through a continued bog, and had long before lost our shoes. A violent tornado ushered in the night, we could not hear each other holla, and were soon separated; luckily I found I had one person left with me (the Ashantee) who, after I had groped him out, tying his cloth tight round his middle, gave me the other end, and thus plunged along, pulling me after him, through bogs and rivers, exactly like an owl tied to a duck in a pond. The thunder, the darkness, and the howlings of the wild beasts were awful, but the loud and continued crash of a large tree, which fell very near us during the storm, was even more so to my ear. The Ashantee had dragged me along, or rather through, in this manner until I judged it to be midnight, when, quite exhausted, with the remnants of my clothes scarcely hanging together, I let go his cloth, and falling on the ground, was asleep before I could call out to him. I was awoken by this faithful guide, who had felt me out, and seated me on the trunk of a tree, with my head resting on his shoulder; he gave me to understand I must die if I sat there, and we pursued the duck and owl method once more. In an hour we forded the last river, which had swollen considerably above my chin, and spread to a great width. This last labour I considered final, and my drowsiness became so fascinating, that it seemed to beguile me of every painful thought and apprehension, and the yielding to it was an exquisite, though momentary pleasure. I presume I must have slept above an hour, lifted by this humane man from the bank of the river to a drier corner of the forest, more impervious to the torrents of rain; when, being awake, I was surprised to see him with a companion and a torch; he took me on his back, and in about three quarters of an hour we reached Akrofrom. This man knew I carried about me several ounces of gold, for the subsistence of the people, not trusting to our luggage, which we could not reckon on in such a season and journey. Exhausted and insensible, my life was in his hands, and infested as the forest was with wild beasts, he might after such a night, without suspicion, have reported me as destroyed by them; this had occurred to me, and was an uneasy feeling as long as my torpor left me any.'

In our proposed article on the second part of this work, of which the matter will necessarily be more important, we will attempt something that may approach to a detailed account of this singular monarchy.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IX. *Dramatic Scenes and other Poems*. By Barry Cornwall. Crown 8vo. pp. 166. 6s. Boards. Ollier. 1819.

WHEN a poet once forsakes the paths of simplicity and nature, and seeks to gain attention either by an affected imitation of the old writers or by following his own crude notions of originality, we may safely pronounce that it is impossible for him ever to attain the higher honours of the lyre. Of the latter error, we find but too many examples in the productions of the Lake school; of the former, the author now before us, as well as some others whom we could mention, is a proof. An infatuation like this is the more to be lamented when it is indulged by men of talents; whose minds, if unaffected by such puerile conceits, might produce something which would render them well deserving of applause.

It is not in the shackles of mannerism, it is not in the quaint turn of an uncommon expression, nor yet in the magic of an obsolete word, that the soul of poetry consists; it is in the simple, noble, and natural flow of the deep feelings which rise from the heart like a pure and living stream from the ground, gushing forth free and unrestrained. Where affectation prevails, there can be no poetry: we recognize the hand of the man, not of the poet; and we turn in disgust from one who attempts to rouse the noblest passions of our soul over a theme in which his own have never been excited. To place our claim to applause on the servility of our imitation is even more reprehensible than to palm our original conceits on the world for more than they are worth; it is an intellectual theft, and the heart feels and abhors it. Yet, singular as it may be, those who are especially blameable in this respect generally make greater pretensions to a natural style than their compeers: but this must be attributed to the same want of judgment which first caused their error.

We reprobate this love of affectation with the more severity, from our perfect conviction that, as long as it exists in the mind, we must in vain look for excellence. The author of the *Dramatic Scenes* now before us is one of those unfortunate persons who have thus lost their way in the wilds of Parnassus. He is a writer of considerable power, possesses poetic feeling, and

and has great strength of expression: but he has ingeniously contrived to throw all these qualifications into the shade, by his palpable and servile imitations of our elder dramatists, and by the uniform air of attempt and constraint which pervades all his poems. He has not only copied the general character of their style, but he uses their words, and their combinations of words; and he has even stolen their imperfect and unfinished versification, by way of adding a still more natural cast to his poems.

We really feel a sentiment of grief and vexation, when we see a mind capable of better things descending to these mean artifices: but we shall now let our readers judge whether these censures are correct when applied to the present volume. Its sketches consist of dramatic incidents thrown into a single scene, or at most into two; and they are written with much power and cleverness. Some of them are Italian, from Boccaccio; and some are imaginary.

Mr. Cornwall* has selected the story of Ludovico Sforza for one of his sketches. Sforza, uncle of the young Duke of Milan, was present at his marriage with Isabella, granddaughter of the King of Naples; and he was so much struck with her beauty, that it was supposed he caused his nephew Gallazzo to be poisoned in order to supplant him in her love. The author has added a supposed scene, in which the widowed Isabella, having invited Sforza to a banquet, mingles poison with the wine, and, when it begins to take effect causes him to be bound to his chair, and adds her reproaches to the agony of death. This last scene is a glaring proof of Mr. C.'s want of good taste. We prefer to quote

‘ SCENE I. — A Street.

‘ *Duke of Milan.* — *Ludovico Sforza.*

‘ *Duke.* And this proud lady, was she chaste as fair?

‘ *Sforza.* Pure as the flame that burnt on Dian's altar,
And lovely as the morning. — Oh! she stood
Like one of those bright shapes of fabling Greece,
(Born of the elements) which, as they tell,
Woo'd mortals to their arms. A form more beautiful
(Houri, or child o' the air,) ne'er glanced upon
A poet's dream, nor in Arabian story
Gave promise of that vaunted paradise.
Not they, who, from the stars, look watchfully

* May we ask whether this be a *nom de guerre*? We have some suspicions. The volume contains *Rosamund Gray*, a poetic fragment; and Mr. Lamb's works, noticed in Art. IV. of this Number, have *Rosamund Gray, a Tale*.

Upon the deeds of men, and oft, 'tis said,
 Dart like a vapour from their wheeling orbs
 In streaming splendour hither, to redress
 Or guide, were lovelier. Her voice was sweet
 And full of music, and did bear a charm
 Like numbers floating from the breathed flute,
 Caught afar off, — and which the idle winds
 Of June, through wantonness at eve, do fling,
 O'er banks and beds of flowers.

' *Duke.* What! have you done, my lord?

' *Sforza.* Extravagant boy,
 Art not content? Well, I could say for ever.
 Her step? 'twas light as Dian's, when she tripp'd
 Amid her frolic nymphs, laughing, or when
 Just risen from the bath, she fled in sport
 Round oaks and sparkling fountains,
 Chas'd by the wanton Oreades: her brow
 Pale as Athenian marble, but around it
 Grew fillets, like the raven's wing: her mouth
 (Jove would have kiss'd it) did keep as prisoners
 Within its perfumed gates, pearls more rich
 Than Cleopatra got from Antony:
 Her eyes, and one might look on them at times,
 In lustre did outvie that Egyptian queen
 When on the Cydnus banks, in pride, she stuck
 Rare gems (each one a province) in her hair,
 And bade the Roman worship her.'

Who will fail to perceive much beauty in the foregoing lines? but perhaps they give, on the whole, the most favourable specimen of Mr. Barry Cornwall's powers. The subsequent extract from the fragment intitled *Lysander and Ione* has a larger proportion of the faults which we have pointed out:

' *Lysander. — Ione. — (A Wood.)*

' *Lys.* Now sit.

' *Ione.* Where?

' *Lys.* On this broken stump, here; see
 The embroiderer, Moss, hath wrought you a golden seat.

' *Ione.* How! on the moss?

' *Lys.* Aye; for, when nature dresses,
 It fills its part well: therefore honour it,
 There seems a kindly feeling in't, as though
 A spirit of goodness peep'd from out the earth
 To shield decay.

' *Ione.* So there: now kneel and worship.

' *Lys.* I will: but first look at your bower: behind
 Are hazel boughs; lean on them, sweet, they will
 Clasp you like love; and what a canopy is
 This scented lime! kings have not such above 'em.

And

I hark ! how, midst its shivering leaves, the wind
 utters amorous noises ; ('tis Eavonius, hark !
 murmuring among the blossoms ;) then below
 there is a carpet for your delicate feet,
 we in Vertumnus' loom.'

The miscellaneous poems, at the end of the volume, are
 such in the style of their precursors, or even still more
 regular and fantastical in their sentiment and versification.
 Among them, however, are two or three pieces which we
 deem very beautiful, and which shew the writer to be pos-
 sessed of powers that, if properly developed, might rank
 high among the poets of the age. The pieces which we
 would particularly mention are 'The Magdalen,' 'Rosa-
 nd Gray,' and 'Woman:' — the latter we cannot forbear
 give our readers, more especially as it is free from the
 trivialities to which Mr. Cornwall is generally so much
 indebted.

' *Woman.*

' Gone from her cheek is the summer bloom,
 And her lip has lost all its faint perfume ;
 And the gloss has dropped from her golden hair,
 And her cheek is pale, but no longer fair.

' And the spirit that sate on her soft blue eye
 Is struck with cold mortality ;
 And the smile that played round her lip has fled,
 And every charm has now left the dead.

' Like slaves they obey'd her in height of power,
 But left her all in her wintry hour ;
 And the crowds that swore for her love to die
 Shrunk from the tone of her last faint sigh,
 — And this is *Man's* fidelity ?

' 'Tis *Woman* alone, with a purer heart,
 Can see all these idols of life depart,
 And love the more ; and smile and bless
 Man in his uttermost wretchedness.'

We have been the more free in our remarks on Mr. Barry
 Cornwall's writings, from a conviction that, if he would
 shake off the trammels of art and affectation with which he
 contrived to fetter himself, he might produce something
 highly honourable to his own fame, and very acceptable to
 lovers of true poetry.

ART. X. *Transactions of the Association of Fellows and Licentiates of the King's and Queen's College of Physicians in Ireland.*
Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 510. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IT has been a subject of just reproach to the members of the medical profession in Dublin, that, although that city is the seat of an university, and contains a population about three times greater than Edinburgh, they have hitherto done little for the advancement of their art. No public journal or register of their transactions has ever appeared, and they have by no means contributed their share in other ways to the progress which the different departments of the science have experienced during the last century. In fact, we have known less of the condition of medicine in Ireland than of its state in France or Germany; and, except two or three names that occasionally appeared in the Transactions of our Medical and Chirurgical Society, or in Dr. Duncan's Journal, the fame of the Irish practitioners was entirely confined to their own island. Under these circumstances, it gave us peculiar pleasure to receive the volume which forms the subject of this article; both in consequence of the intrinsic merit of some of its parts, and because it affords a sufficient proof that our brethren of "the Emerald Isle" are at length determined to display the fruits of those talents, which have till now lain dormant.

The first paper contains a *Case of Ulceration and Rupture of the Stomach*, by John Crampton, M.D., &c.; in which a female was attacked with acute symptoms that resembled those of peritonitis, except that they were unattended by vomiting, and which ended fatally in twelve hours. The body was examined after death, and the stomach was found to have a small perforation, through which its contents had escaped into the cavity of the abdomen. It was supposed by the author that the urgent symptoms depended more on the presence of this extraneous matter, than on the primary disease in the stomach itself.

Dr. Stoker next gives an account of *Cases of Tumours within the Abdomen*. They are five in number, and the following is the report made of them generally by the author himself:

'The three first are cases of encysted tumours within the abdomen; the history of the former appearing interesting, especially when considered with reference to the singular appearances of the diseased parts discovered after death, such as ulceration and rupture of the stomach, of the diaphragm, of the lungs, and of the bronchiæ, so that all of these parts were found communicated by one continuous canal. The favourable termination of the two other cases appeared to me, to have depended chiefly on the joint efficacy

efficacy of external pressure, and of digitalis given internally; and the cases of aneurisms annexed are intended to illustrate the operation of these remedies.'

The first case is detailed with considerable minuteness. It would not be easy in a few words to characterize its symptoms, but we may say generally that they were such as indicated a complete derangement of all the functions of the abdominal viscera; yet so as scarcely to point to any one individually which could be selected as the primary seat of the disease. Some of the more remarkable appearances after death are accurately detailed, and are instructive as far as they shew how great a derangement of the parts may exist, and still be not incompatible with life: but they do not throw much light on the pathology of the case, nor on the origin of the operation.

Of the two cases of aneurysm, which we stated to have been cured by pressure and digitalis, the first was 'of the gluteal artery on its passing outside the pelvis, and had acquired the size of an orange;' it is said to have been entirely removed in fourteen days. The second was an aneurysm of the bronchial artery, and was cured in a still shorter period of time. This last patient has since died from pectoral complaints; and, although it appears that the body was examined after death, we are surprized not to find an account of the state of the part in which the aneurysm was supposed to have been situated.

The next case, consisting of an account of *Extensive Suppuration of the Liver*, by Dr. O'Brien, is only worth our attention as an example of an occurrence which, though frequent in warm climates, is comparatively rare in the British islands.

Dr. Black furnishes two papers, the first intitled *Dissections of two Habitual Drunkards*, and the second a *Case of Gouty Affection*. The appearances found in the bodies of the two drunkards were considerably different from each other. In the first, in whom the habit of intoxication was comparatively of recent existence, the liver was almost the only part that was found diseased.

'It certainly was not one-half its natural size, perhaps not much more than one-third; its substance, when pressed between the fingers, felt perfectly hard and rigid, and was throughout full of small hard tubercles, of the size of a garden pea, some of them larger; they were of a dark brown colour. The substance of the liver, being cut into, shewed its parenchyma as completely beset by these, as its external surface was; none of them shewed any tendency to suppuration. The gall-bladder had shrunk and shrivelled

shrivelled appearance, and contained scarcely any bile. The pylorus appeared rather thick, and indurated.

In the second case, the habit had been of much longer standing; here the liver was considerably enlarged, and in one part filled with tubercles; but the most remarkable appearance was that of the stomach.

'This organ was so small and contracted, that its cavity would not, I think, have contained a turkey egg. The coats of it were thickened, and indurated in a very extraordinary manner. Their original organization seemed entirely obliterated, and they had all coalesced into a solid homogeneous substance, which in some places was half an inch thick; in others, three quarters of an inch. This substance, in structure and appearance, resembled cartilage, softened, more than any thing else I can compare it to: the pylorus with difficulty admitted the end of the little finger, the interior surface of the stomach abounded with several appearances, to which (for want of a better) I shall give the name of fungous excrescences: some of them were broader than a ten penny piece, and from their surface there oozed a dirty brownish fluid.'

The *Gouty Affection*, described by Dr. Black, terminated in a large tumour, which appeared on dissection to be of that kind which Mr. Abernethy calls medullary sarcoma; it was more or less connected with most of the abdominal viscera, and weighed six pounds. We are very doubtful how far it had any relation to the gouty diathesis of the patient.

Dr. Mills states a case in which *the Influence of Hepatic Disease over the Functions of the Uterus* seems to be well illustrated; as, by restoring the healthy action of the liver, the uterine system, which had before been much deranged, acquired its healthy action.

The next paper, by Dr. Brooke, the President of the Association, gives *a remarkable Case of Hydrocephalus Internus in an Adult, in which much Benefit resulted from the Application of Dover's Powder*. The case is very minutely detailed, but we doubt whether the instruction to be gained from it is equivalent to its length; perhaps some relief of certain urgent symptoms might be obtained from the medicine, but the disease terminated fatally.

Dr. Robert Reid contributes two papers; the first on the *Use of Oxygen Gas in Angina Pectoris*, and the second on the *Nature and Treatment of Tetanus*. The former consists only of one case, in which the oxygen was supposed to afford some relief, but the complaint soon proved fatal under a very aggravated form. Except as a minute detail of symptoms, this memoir possesses little value or interest. The other has some more

more claim on our attention. The author observes that most medical writers suppose that no morbid appearances are to be detected in tetanus: but that, by examining the spinal cord, which from the specific symptoms of the disease he was induced to regard as its immediate seat, he discovered an unusual degree of vascularity in the part, and an effusion of a portion of fluid into the vertebral sheath. It will be an object with future practitioners to examine how far these observations are confirmed. We cannot speak in very favourable terms of Dr. Reid's pathological remarks. The practice which he recommends is that of giving sudorifics, so as to produce a copious perspiration over the whole surface. His paper is accompanied by a plate; which, however, we can scarcely suppose to be a very correct representation of the appearances, either as to form or colour.

Dr. Brooke reports *Three Cases of Melæna, in which the most decided good Effects appear to have been produced by the Exhibition of the Oil of Turpentine.* The object of the author is not only to illustrate the operation of turpentine in this disease, but also to throw some light on the nature of the affection: this he supposes to be of two kinds, in the one case originating from venous blood, and in the other from bile poured into the intestines, and retained there until they had lost their characteristic sensible properties. In the first of the cases, the discharge was supposed to be sanguineous, and Dr. Brooke 'gave the spirit of turpentine as a styptic;' but the patient died; yet afterward, when a case of melæna occurred in which 'the discharges were most decidedly bilious,' the turpentine was again employed in consequence of its use in the former case. Our readers will probably agree with us in regarding this as rather a curious process of reasoning.

Dr. Stoker has contributed a paper on *Dropsy and Apoplexy*; containing the narrative of a case in which these two diseases occurred to the same individual in succession, and were both removed by the antiphlogistic and depletory plan of treatment: the account is accompanied by some interesting pathological remarks.

A Case of Chronic Rheumatic Inflammation successfully treated by Bandages, by Richard Grattan, M.D., appears to exhibit a decided example of the benefit obtained by the practice that has been lately recommended by Dr. Balfour.

A sensible although rather desultory paper follows on *Hydrocephalic Fever*, by Dr. Crampton; a principal object of which is to examine and compare the merits of the different opinions that have been entertained respecting the origin of the

the disease, whether the abdominal viscera or the head be the part primarily affected; and respecting the pathology of the parts immediately concerned in its production. We quote the observations which Dr. Crampton offers on the cure of the malady:

‘ The plan of cure, which appears to me to deserve attention in hydrocephalic fever, is to take blood freely from the arm, from the arteries of the head, and by leeches at the temples; also from the side, where there is evidence of any disease in the liver; to give purgatives freely, to employ mercurials, with digitalis and other diuretics, to excite the healthy action of the liver, the mucous surfaces and the kidneys, to exert likewise that combined impression on the absorbent and exhalant systems to which I have already adverted, using opiates also to control that excessive feeling, and that morbid animal sensibility which adds so much to the distress of the patient, and which throws so many obstacles in our way in subduing so formidable a disease.’

A short paper by Mr. Geoghegan affords an account of an *Abscess in the Liver*, which was opened, and soon afterward terminated fatally; and a case of what seemed to be ascites, but which on dissection was found to be an *enormous distension of the colon*.

A memoir of nearly 50 pages in length, by Dr. M^cLoughlin, details a *Case of complicated Dropsy and Dissection, with Observations*. On examining the body after death, several remarkable appearances were detected; the left ovarium was so much increased in size as to fill completely all the cavity of the pelvis, its bulk arising partly from hydatids and partly from a serous fluid: but, which is more deserving of attention, and in fact constitutes the peculiarity and value of the report, almost all the viscera were found in a remarkably contracted state, and yet in other respects not very obviously diseased. The circumstances of the case, as stated by the author, do not enable us to decide whether the contraction of the viscera depended on the enlargement of the ovarium or on some other cause, perhaps original mal-conformation: nor can we bestow much commendation on the pathological reasoning of Dr. M^cLoughlin, or on his discrimination in relating the authorities on which he founds his opinions.

About half of the volume still remains; which is occupied by four statistical papers that compose by far the most valuable part of it. The most important is that of Dr. Percival, consisting of *Observations on the Epidemic Fevers of Dublin, founded on a Report of the Hardwicke Fever Hospital, during the Years 1813, 1814, and 1815*. This hospital forms one of four large medical establishments which are attached to the
Dublin

Dublin House of Industry, and was principally under the care of the author during the period above specified. The method which he proposes to follow 'is, in the first place, to notice the varieties and modifications of epidemic fever; their relation to the seasons, to the age, sex, and condition of the patients. In the next place, the general morbid characters and progress of fever will be adverted to; and, lastly, the methods of remedial practice.' After some useful observations on the form and situation of the building, the nature and number of the cases received into it, and other preliminary matters, Dr. P. enters more directly on the consideration of fever. He remarks, with correctness, that two classes of facts present themselves to our notice; those that regard the generic symptoms of fever as they exist at all times, and those of a specific nature which occur on certain occasions only, or in particular seasons. The ancients attended more to the latter, and the moderns have dwelt more on the former of these topics: but, in order to acquire a perfect acquaintance with the subject, it is necessary that neither of them should be neglected; and accordingly, while Dr. P. has considered under separate heads the influence of the seasons, of sex, age, and other circumstances which may be denominated incidental, he has united his observations into one focus, so as to apply them to the explanation of the pathology of fever generally. Without professing to give our readers a complete abstract of all the valuable matter which is contained in this essay, we shall lay before them a few of the most important inferences which the author deduces from his experience. It is to be noticed that the Hardwicke hospital is not confined to the reception of epidemic or contagious fevers, but receives generally all febrile diseases which originate in the large and often crowded mass of people who are contained in what is styled, probably with as little correctness as in this country, the House of Industry. The season in which fever abounds most in the hospital is from the beginning of spring to the middle of summer; during which period a greater tendency to the inflammatory type exists than at other times, and the most prevalent symptoms were those that indicated an affection of the chest. As the summer advanced, the stomach became the organ most apt to be deranged; in the autumn, the hepatic system; and in the winter the cerebral: when, also, cases of decided typhus were more frequent and severe. Taking the average of three years, the monthly number of fever-patients was 173, and the annual number 2080; generally speaking, the autumnal months were the most unhealthy,

healthy, but this rule had many exceptions. The number of males admitted was 2684, and of females 3558; yet the deaths among the males were more numerous, in the ratio of above three to two. With respect to the ages of the patients, the greatest number was 10 years; next to that, 30: but, as it is justly remarked, the accession of new inhabitants from the country must cause an unusual number of persons of that age to be always resident in large cities, and liable to be the subjects of typhus. — We pass over with regret a large portion of Dr. Percival's paper, which treats of the nature of fever, its varieties and species, its relation to contagion, the mode of treatment, and other very interesting topics, as well practical as theoretical: but we shall present our readers with a specimen or two, which, we trust, will induce them to peruse the whole.

‘ The worst symptoms of fever are pervigilium, tympany, singultus, coma; the most favourable in all cases are sleep, a moist tongue, and solvent bowels. The appearance of the alvine evacuations affords a good index of the state of the larger secreting viscera. The quality of the urine is too variable to place any dependence upon it; but its quantity is an indication of some import, in the advanced stages of fever, when a deficiency of this discharge is an unfavourable sign, and its suppression, very commonly, a fatal one. — The state of the pulse has appeared to me a much less uniform or satisfactory criterion than it has usually been esteemed, except when it manifestly indicates inflammation, or the near approach of death. — The appearance of petechiæ is still less subservient to prognosis; yet, when their first eruption occurs at an advanced stage of the fever, under a cool and purgative treatment, they undoubtedly proclaim danger. The countenance and posture of the patient, his manner of respiration, and the appearance of his tongue, give various and authentic information to the experienced practitioner. When the patient lies at ease on his side, and especially if he is observed to relieve himself by spontaneous changes of position, after the fever is much advanced, the augury is favourable; on the contrary, when he continues extended and supine, lethargic and muttering, the prognostic is adverse. But the tongue is perhaps the most accurate informant of the state and progress of the fever; as it indicates the condition of the whole intestinal canal, and of those visceral organs, which hold so remarkable a sympathy with the brain.’ —

‘ Of the appearances of the tongue in typhus, the following deserve distinct attention. First, it may be moist and thinly coated with white mucus, as in the febrile phlegmasiæ; in which case the pulse is usually strong, the temperature of the body high, and some viscus engaged in inflammatory action. — Secondly, when the tongue is thickly covered with yellowish mucus, the skin is also generally suffused with a similar tinge; the epigastrium is tumid, and the hepatic viscus in a state of
congestion.

congestion. Thirdly, a brown dry streak in the middle of the tongue indicates intestinal torpor and defective secretion throughout the canal. — Fourthly, a tremulous tongue betrays debility with sensorial disturbance. — Fifthly, a dark, dry and shrunk tongue, with difficulty protruded beyond the teeth, indicates a deeply vitiated condition of the secretory organs, with extreme prostration of forces both animal and vital. I have not been able to ascertain that it indicates any peculiar change in the condition of the blood. Although venæsection is rarely practised with advantage under these circumstances, yet a spontaneous hæmorrhagy, especially from the nose, is often salutary. A copious exhalation from the capillaries tends to the like relief. — Sixthly, the tongue has sometimes a highly florid hue, with eminent papillæ. This obtains chiefly when the fever has become hectic from suppurating surfaces or abscesses, as when dysenteric disease is formed. — Seventhly, the tongue often becomes swelled and partially shining in the advanced stages of typhus. The middle of the organ, on its upper surface, is occupied by a dark dry or rough streak; but the edges and the inferior part are puffed out and flaccid. I am at a loss to account for this latter circumstance, or to specify any indication of this state of the tongue, different from that just noticed in the fifth variety of its morbid appearances.’

“We pass over the three remaining papers, giving no more than their titles, not from being insensible to their value or importance, but owing partly to their nature, which renders it difficult to abridge or abstract them, and still more because we have already occupied very nearly all the space that we can allot to this article. The papers are, *Abstract of a Registry kept for some Years in the Dublin Lying-in-Hospital*, by Joseph Clarke, M.D. M.R.I.A.; — *Medical Report of the Fever-Hospital in Cork Street, for the Year 1814*, by John O’Brien, M.D.; and *Medical Reports of the same Hospital, for the Year 1815*, by Richard Grattan, M.D.

It only remains for us to say a few concluding words respecting the merits of the volume generally; and in so doing we must very decidedly deprecate all idea of our being influenced by any contracted or illiberal feelings, when we remark that, if we except the statistical papers, the character of the performance is considerably below the standard of any analogous publication in London or Edinburgh. The style, execution, and subjects are prolix, vague, inaccurate, and indefinite; and we are confident that the discernment of the members of the association themselves must observe the great superiority of Dr. Percival’s mode of thinking and writing, compared with that of any of his coadjutors. — The incorrectness of the printing of this work, although comparatively a trifling circumstance,

cumstance, is in character with the other qualities, and would not be endured even in a provincial press in Great Britain. Let not our Irish readers be indignant at these remarks, but let them seriously inquire whether they are well founded, and strive to correct the causes of them, if on examination this should be seen to be the case. No persons can be more sensible than we are of the native talents of the Irish, or more lament their frequent want of cultivation and proper direction.

ART. XI. *Peter's Letters to his Kinsfolk.* The Second Edition. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Blackwood, Edinburgh; Cadell and Davies, London. 1819.

A MAGAZINE having somewhat recently been established at Edinburgh by Mr. Blackwood, and published under his name, a part of the letters which are included in the volumes before us appeared in it as extracts from the imaginary work which they afterward formed, and attracted the notice of its readers. Much augmented, even to objectionable prolixity, they were then issued in their present shape, as the production of a Dr. Morris, a Welsh physician. This supposed Doctor, however, we believe, we may denominate an extraordinary shadow of a man, who has served very prettily to play the jackal to some would-be lions of northern literature following in his rear, ready to pounce on a trembling public, whom his mock cry had summoned together. Such a mode of carrying on a paper-warfare has succeeded in this instance. The cries were repeated, and the victims were seen thronging into the shops of the booksellers. When the game was deemed sufficient, the lions rushed on their prey from the covert of the Magazine; and thus Dr. Peter Morris, and his Letters to his Kinsfolk, received their first distinct existence in the shop-windows of the bibliopolists both of London and Edinburgh. The compositions, in fact, originated in strictures on another Edinburgh periodical work, and formed attacks on the characters of many celebrated men, who had rendered themselves obnoxious by writing on "the other side of the question." Thus the letters to Professors Playfair and Leslie, which are any thing but justifiable, though disguised under a German address, have every appearance of belonging to the same series, and to the same pen or pens with those which are now attributed to Dr. Peter Morris, and which are pretended to be written during his tour in the north. The more violent and personal critiques, however, were not admitted into the
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te work, though they remain in the Magazine; and so far, the young authors, with whom in reality they acted, and who were so caustic and even ferocious in the errors of that publication, afterward made the "*amendable*," and recanted their errors in the Letters. They did penance for their faults in the urgency and inconceivable which they underwent, in order to increase the bulk of correspondence to three volumes, when they were indeed that the appointed hour was come, and the public eagerly seeking for an introduction to the pseudo-authorial productions.

ough the plan is by no means novel, as we are in possession of numerous letters in this style both from the *dead* and *the living*, and the very title is almost a plagiarism on Walter Scott's work, *Paul's Letters to his Kinsfolk*; yet have exceeded these young authors (as we believe to be) in the management of the device. Some persons will doubtful whether the Doctor be not really now, pro-

physic at Aberystwith, from the local knowledge he displays of the best mansions, wines, &c. of the palatry: but others perceive that the work bears indubitable marks that the real author cannot be the mere visitor in "the Land of Cakes" which he pretends to be. It is always difficult to look on familiar things with the eye of a stranger; and it requires a strong imagination, capable of conjuring itself of those particulars which would betray an acquaintance. For our part, we cannot admit that Morris is one of this sort of visitors, and therefore the details of the machinery are by no means fortunate in proving the *probability* of this part of their drama. His particular descriptions of characters and scenery are far too periodical and minute for the casual eye of a mere traveller; while the strength and vividness of his language partake little of the style of so old a gentleman as Dr. Morris is represented to be. *Certes*, the writer must have paced the streets of Edinburgh frequently, amid old familiar faces, and must have traced his way through the Parliament-house, and dined both with Whigs and Tories, for years, before he ventured to shew a panorama of Edinburgh, with full delineations of the characters of lawyers, divines, authors, and critics. He must have studied oratory from the lips of Cranstoun and Jeffery, and he gave us so exact an estimation of their powers; and must have duly attended Alison, or Chalmers at the Tron Church, ere he could so well describe their display of pulpit-ence. There is a want of keeping in the picture, then, in making it to be drawn by the hand of a Welsh tourist; if we attribute it to the united genius of Mr. L—— and

Mr. J. W——, its inconsistencies will vanish, and the various groupes of figures will appear in their true light and position.

These gentlemen are themselves barristers; and, therefore, in the foreground of the panorama, we perceive a fine view of the Parliament-house, with all the hurry and bustle of cadets and writers; — they are scholars, and *that* is the “stone school;” — orators, and a little in the shade at the spouting club; — next, critics, and highest in the prospect rises the Attic seat of wits, with Ambrose’s tavern, and the “feast of shells,” and “fine Glenlivet whisky” still farther in the distance. Thus we have lawyers, poets, and critics, represented in every attitude; while they do not allow *the Doctor* even once to hint at the gentlemen of his own profession. Yet to have been consistent, they should not only have permitted him to descant on physic, but, as he is stated to be an elderly gentleman, and a great admirer of antiquity, he should have exhibited a little more of the Roman spirit of Fabricius when he suddenly beheld the elephant of Pyrrhus; and not have started back with surprize and delight when the curtain was drawn from the literary monster, and Edinburgh flashed on his bewildered view. If he had likewise consulted Horace, as much as he appears to be acquainted with the doctrine of Epicurus, and had committed to memory a few of his more *temperate* maxims, such as the “*nil admirari*,” or the “*Potabis MODICIS Sabinum cantharis*,” the Welsh physician would have appeared more in character. On the contrary, the “*nunc est bibendum*” is made too favourite a topic for a sober and elderly physician. With such exceptions, however, the *chief* author is really an entertaining and enlightened traveller, apparently an agreeable companion, and by no means a despicable poet, as his letters frequently evince by bold imagery, lively descriptions, and ridiculously happy delineations of events. A strain of good humour, cleverness, and even occasional wit, is also manifested, which is well adapted to delineate the peculiar character and manners of a people like the Scotch; and, though not to be compared to our masters in this line, Cervantes, Le Sage, Montesquieu’s Chinese Letters, Voltaire’s Novels, or even (Southey’s) Esprilla’s Letters of a Spaniard from England, the pseudo-doctor has given a portrait which is the best that we have seen for some time. Those who love enthusiasm in describing the characters and customs of a country, or who venerate the “*amor patriæ*” reduced to the finest *threads* of distinction, will here find ample materials for thought and entertainment; and, though we consider this method of trumpeting forth the modern names and honors of a nation as neither extremely

judicious nor perfectly warrantable, it is one great source of the amusement of which we are sensible while we peruse the work; and narratives of this nature are always read with avidity.

Certainly, however, Mr. L—— and Mr. J. W—— have taken too much liberty with the private life of their countrymen; among whom, we are persuaded, many celebrated names would by no means wish to join in this sort of “literary patriotism” of the north. Indeed, the writers themselves appear to have entertained some doubts on the propriety of the measure, and to have proceeded in it hesitatingly and slowly.

“ We know well enough
What he means by this stuff;
He *haws* — and he *hums*, —
At last out it comes;”

as another Doctor of more facetious memory than the present traveller has happily observed; and so we are presented with the lives and portraits of Dr. Morris and his friends in an imaginary second edition, “*prolem sine matre creatam*.”

Though we thus appear to have penetrated the mystery that hung over the identity of the Cambrian, and find that, like the witches of Macbeth, he has resolved himself “into thin air,” yet we shall enter into the ostensible design of the authors, and now proceed farther to introduce their ideal personage to our readers. As he has met with such attentions on the other side of the Tweed, we should scorn to be out-done on the banks of the Thames, and should endeavour, like the partans, to compensate by hospitality for any deficiencies in Athenian elegance and taste; but, if our reception and treatment of him be a little coarser, it will still be useful to him after his high feasting and rejoicing in the north. A lowering system would certainly be attended with benefit, in reducing that boisterous flow of animal spirits which is continually displayed in over-wrought and enthusiastic language, and exhausting itself in praises of every northern object that it meets. Though we may suppose the Doctor to have fixed on this *laudatory system* in order to make himself agreeable to his hosts, and to proceed more comfortably on his tour, yet he has something too ostentatious in his manner and conversation; too affected a grasp of powerful intellect, too fine and even minute a discernment of taste. Whether the subject be a Hercules Farnese, or a flower, or a little bell, — “the form and body of the times,” or a fine female shape and ankle, the slightest shades in a “glorious picture,”

or in the flavour of old wines, or waltzing, or philosophy, the Doctor is inconsistently happy, and at home. When subjects occur for which he has a particular predilection, (but indeed he seems to have a predilection for all,) he flatters and paints them "up to, the very eyes" with metaphor and description, till we in vain cry out with Horace,

"*Jam satis terris, nivis atque grandinis ;*"

and if we are induced to read on by the high sounding promises of something still to come, we shall frequently find

"*Parturiunt montes — nascetur ridiculus mus.*"

Thus his splendid descriptions, both of persons and places, are often not only imaginary and unfounded, but, when he has roused the expectations of his readers, he concludes in trifling local details, which are quite out of the province of a stranger, and must be by no means interesting to his 'kinsfolk' at home. In this spirit, he descants too minutely on the visages, qualifications, and respective practice of the lawyers, and we are informed of their successive gradations of notoriety with all the exactness of a *writer* himself. The spouting clubs, periodical works, colleges, and *conversazioni*, and in fact every thing with which we may suppose the souls of young authors to be smitten, are described in detail in the same manner; while the good *Doctor* is made a cat's paw, and obliged to lend his authority to their boyish tricks, to the exclusion of all acquaintance with medical men and more serious pursuits. He is thus obliged, rather inconsistently for an elderly gentleman, to write in a *jovial* and youthful strain even to the *Rev. David Williams*, in a letter which will likewise give us an insight into the alleged motives of his tour.

'Although my sole purpose, or nearly so, in coming to Scotland was to see and converse with the illustrious men who live here, I have been in Edinburgh for a fortnight, and can hardly say that I have as yet seen even the faces of most of them. What with *lounging about* in the mornings with W——, and *claret in the evening*, and *routs and balls* at night, I fear I am fast getting into a very unprofitable life. The only very great man here, to whom I had letters of introduction, was S——, and he happened to go out of town for a few weeks, I believe the very day after my arrival.'

We cannot relate all Dr. M.'s interviews, many of which are fanciful, with the celebrated characters whom he mentions, and in which the eulogium poured on them might expose him to the suspicion even of ironical compliment. He next describes himself as returning 'in a stupor of admiration' from
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viewing the city of Edinburgh. Speaking afterward of a well-known writer, he observes :

‘ I find that the common prints give a very inadequate notion of his appearance. The artists of this day are such a set of cowardly fellows, that they never dare to give the truth as it is in nature, and the consequence is, after all, that they rather take from than add to the impressiveness of the faces they would flatter.’

‘ We are of opinion that the Doctor here behaves rather unhandsomely to the artists, who have furnished him with so many beautiful heads (or rather caricatures) of illustrious men to adorn his volumes; though he afterward amply atones to these ‘ cowardly fellows’ by volleys of eulogies, when he arrives at the proper chapter of arts and artists. He then proceeds : ‘ Could all our countrymen of the present time, of very great reputation for talents or genius, be brought together into a single room, their physiognomies would, I doubt not, form as impressive a group as can well be imagined; but, among the whole, there would scarcely be more than one face which any sculptor might be ambitious of imitating on marble.’ From this sentence, we might imagine him to be a second Johnson in disguise; so well does he possess the talent of ironically satirizing while standing forth in the service of his northern friends. He is evidently biassed by a national enthusiasm, which is continually leading him into extremes either of praise or blame; and which has the unfortunate effect of turning the former into ridicule, and disarming the latter of its sting. This is observable in almost every subject which he treats, and particularly in the passage regarding the ‘ natural expression of nobility’ in the countenances of our neighbours :

‘ When a man visits France, whether he be a believer or a despiser of the doctrine of the Spurzheims, he must look around him before he can find any face which he could imagine to be the property of one lineally sprung from the loins of the Bayards and the Duguesclins, or, if you will, of the Farlays and the De Thous. But here the deterioration of the species, if such there be, has scarcely begun to tell upon their physiognomies; and you meet, at every step, persons who have that about them which would prevent you from being at all astonished, if you should be told immediately afterwards, that they could trace themselves, without difficulty, to the Burleighs and the Claverhouses — I had almost said, the Bell-the-Cats and the Kirkpatricks.’

Here the Doctor wisely makes amends for his previous tameness of commendation, and in a moment reconciles ‘ the twinkling grey eyes and peaked chin’ of the peasantry to the glorious

glorious lineaments of national ancestry. We shall feel more happy in giving credit to the truth and beauty of the following description, which at once banishes all our fears of the deterioration of the species :

' I was at a large party yesterday evening — the first sight I have had of the gay world here — and had an opportunity of viewing, at my leisure, all the fashionable belles of the town. You always accuse me of being too undistinguishing an admirer ; but I am sure even you would have allowed that there was no want of beauty. It is many years since I have been familiar with the *beau monde* of London, but I do not believe I ever, in any one evening there, saw a greater number of fine women, and of very different kinds too. I had heard, before I went, that I should see Miss —, the same celebrated *star* of whom you have so often heard Sir Thomas speak, and who, indeed, cannot shew herself any where, even in this unromantic age, without leaving an uneffaceable impression on all that behold her. I confess the description the Knight used to give of her appeared to me to be a little high-flown, but, "seeing is believing." The world has assuredly but one Miss —. I looked round a room crowded with lovely women, but my eye was fixed in a moment ; and I never thought of asking which was she. The first view I had was a profile. I had no suspicion that nature could still form countenances upon that heavenly model. The forehead, high and clear, descends almost without a curve into the nose, and that again drops into the mouth with such bold defined elegance of lineament, as I could scarcely have believed to be copied from living beauty, had I met with it in some master-piece of sculpture. The lips have such a delicate precision of form, and such an expression of divine simplicity in their smile, that one could almost believe they had never admitted any grosser diet than ambrosia ; but the full oval sweep of the cheek and chin, and the mode in which these are carried down into the neck, are, perhaps, the most truly antique parts of the whole. And then such hair — such long luxurious tresses of radiant brown, braided with such serene grace upon that meek forehead ! If you have seen Canova's *testa d'Helena*, you may form some notion of these most exquisite curls. The colour of her eyes I could not ascertain. I suspect they are dark grey, or hazel, but the redundant richness of her eye-lashes gives them all that glossy splendour which oriental beauties borrow from their Sirmē. But, indeed, colour is a small matter in eyes enchased so deeply beneath such majestic brows. I think Lucretius himself would have admitted, that the spirit must be immortal on which so glorious a tenement has been bestowed.'

This forms a *fair* specimen of the luxuriance of the author's style, but it is certainly more allowable on this than on many other subjects of national pride and importance. Inspired by the apparition of so much beauty, the Doctor seems determined that his description should fall little below that of
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the poets of antiquity, and his youthful spirit again betrays itself.

Having thus first paid his devoirs at the assemblies of the fair, we soon afterward discover the imaginary tourist at an imaginary dinner-party at Craigerook, where nothing is too minute to escape attention, and nothing too unimportant to deserve recital. All these accounts, as well as the wonderful feats of activity which are unbecomingly related to have been as unbecomingly performed by men of grave and serious habits, we have lately been informed are entirely, as well as the Doctor himself, a creation of the brain; so that, unless these young authors obtained more *substantial* dinners than the one which is here mentioned, they would have little reason to boast of their "devilled biscuit and champaigne." Other parties and incidents are introduced throughout the volumes, which, we believe, have the same claim to reality: but we must now inquire into our traveller's opinions respecting the Scotch people in general; whose moral and religious habits, and peculiarities, (so well displayed by a celebrated novelist,) are worth our attention. Though the Doctor partook of the riches of the land, he somewhat ungratefully observes:

'The Scots are rather a hard-favoured race than otherwise, but I think their looks are very far from meriting the sort of common-place sarcasms their southern neighbours are used to treat them with. Indeed, no one who has seen a Scots regiment, as I suppose you must have done, can possibly be of opinion that they are at all an ugly nation; although it is very likely he may be inclined to prefer the general appearance of some other nation or nations to theirs. For my part, I am not without suspicion that a longer residence among them might teach me to become an absolute admirer of their physiognomies; at least, I am sensible, that the slight repugnance I felt for them at first has already very considerably given way.'

We confess that we consider this species of commendation as of too dubious a nature; since first impressions either of repugnance or approbation are not so easily banished. The ensuing is perhaps too much in the same strain.

'What the Scottish physiognomists are used to talk of, with the highest satisfaction, is the air of superior intelligence stamped on the faces of their countrymen of the lower orders of society; and indeed there is no question, a Scottish peasant, with his long dry visage, his sharp prominent cheek-bones, his grey twinkling eyes, and peaked chin, would seem a very Argus, if set up close beside the sleek and ponderous chubbiness of a Gloucestershire farmer — to say nothing of the smarter and ruddier oiliness of some of our own country-folks. The best place to study their faces is in the kirk:

kirk: it is there that the sharpness of their discernment is most vehemently expressed in every line — for they are all critics of the sermon, and even of the prayers; but it is there also that this sharpness of feature is most frequently seen to melt away before emotions of a nobler order, which are no less peculiarly, though far less permanently theirs.' —

'The gentlemen of this part of the country have assuredly by no means the same advantages over those of the south, which the Scotch peasants have over the English. I know not altogether to what these advantages enjoyed by the lower orders may be owing: — their better education is, of course, the first and most obvious source — their more sterile soil, and consequently *their less luxurious life*, may be others almost as efficient.'

Surely the author must be little acquainted with the state of the lower orders of the English, or the Welsh, whatever he be with the Scotch, to insist on their superior luxury of life; otherwise, the Scotch must have arrived at a most deplorable state of wretchedness and despair, which would render his remark of high cheek-bones still more pertinent and just. We are afraid that Dr. Morris and his friends, in this as in literary matters, are too apt to judge *positively* of things, rather than from fair comparison and knowledge, which produce *humility*. Thus they imagine, from the plenty of things in the "gude town," that the nation at large is in a thriving condition; and they are revolted at hearing any dissenting voices from their happy chorus, speaking in favour of humanity and reform, which they fashionably denounce as sedition and folly. Let us now inquire whether his opinions of Scotch rank be more just and reasonable.

'The gentry, however, have no pretensions to a more intelligent exterior than their neighbours of the south. The truth is, that certain indications of worldly quick-sightedness, which please on the face, and in the air of a peasant, produce quite a different effect when exhibited in the case of a person of superior rank. One rather wishes to see these things kept under in the appearance of a person of education, than suspects their non-existence in the totality of his character. Without wanting their due proportion of the national enthusiasm, the Scotch gentry seem to shew much fewer symptoms of it, than those below them; and this is a sufficiently natural result of their own comparative importance. It is a result, notwithstanding, which tends to make any thing but a favourable impression on the mind of a stranger.'

Were it not for the marked difference occasionally visible in the phraseology of the Doctor's language, we should again imagine him to be a Johnsonian spy.

We are next regaled with the history of a Mr. W——, and his opinions on the antiquated and now almost exploded question

of Whig and Tory. The Scotch clergy, with David Hume close at their heels, then strangely make their appearance, followed by cranioscopy, and the poor *mangled shade* of Rousseau. As nothing remarkably *striking* is here obtained, Dr. M. proceeds to open a fresh battery of 'Letters' on us; and Mr. —, and Mr. —, and Mr. —, Dr. —, and Professors —, succeed one another, like the progeny of Banquo, "each with the crown and top of sovereignty," till the reader begins to despair of any end to the learned catalogue. We are, however, relieved by an impressive description of a dinner, sacred to the memory of the unhappy Burns: but it would have been more honourable to have cherished him while alive, than it is to hold vain orgies or erect monuments over him now that he is dead. We may, indeed, apply to Scotia, with regard to the death of Burns, the words of that great moralist Johnson: "There is not, perhaps, to a mind well instructed, a more painful occurrence than the death of one whom we have injured, without reparation: our crime seems now irretrievable; it is indelibly recorded; and the stamp of fate is fixt upon it." — The genius of Scotia, too, might exclaim with Scaliger over the tomb of his rival Erasmus,

*"Tunc etiam moreris? Ah! quid me linquis, Erasme,
Ante meus quam sit conciliatus amor?"*

The University of Edinburgh next appears to have attracted the notice of the traveller; and we are sorry to see him observe that it is far from being the parent of *learning*, like institutions of the same nature in England. He then takes the freedom of giving rather too ludicrous a description of the young Whigs and Scotch students; after which he learnedly descants on Edinburgh society, waltzing, the cadies, monuments, speculating societies, the arts, blue-stockings, and a rout. Disentangled at last from this labyrinth, we find the Doctor in the Court of Session; studying advocates, solicitors, and agents, in a whirl of eagerness and activity, every face alert, and sharpened into the acutest angles.

Some I could see were darting about among the different bars, where pleadings were going forward, like midshipmen in an engagement, furnishing powder to the combatants. They brought their great-guns, the advocates, sometimes to bear on one Judge and sometimes on another; while each Judge might be discovered sitting calmly, like a fine piece of stone-work, amidst the hiss of bombs, and the roar of forty-pounders. In the mean time, the "men of business," who were not immediately occupied in this way, paced rapidly along, — each borne on his particular wave of this great tide of the affairs of men, but all having their faces well turned up above the crowd, and keeping a sharp look-out. This

was, I think, their general attitude. It reminded me of trouts bobbing near the surface of a stream, all equally sharp-set, and anxious for a snap at whatever is going.'

A little farther on, he continues;

'Whether I looked like a client either in *esse* or in *posse*, I know not, but

—— "Some fell to such perusal of my face
As they would draw me ;"

while I, in the mean time, could begin to discover here and there a few persons of more quiescent demeanour, who looked like some of those unfortunates, at whose expence this superb scene of motion is maintained and kept in action. Money may be compared to a momentum, or impetus, of which one body loses as much as it imparts to another. The client, after having transferred a certain impetus to his agent, loses part of his alacrity, and is apt to stand still in the Parliament House with rather a disconsolate air, while he sees his agent (consolatory spectacle!) inspired with the momentum of which he himself is divested, and spinning about in every sort of curve, ellipsis, and parabola. Such of these litigants, again, as had come from the country, could be easily pointed out from among the other clients. Here and there, I noticed a far-travelled Gaffer, conspicuous for his farmer's coat of grey, or lightest cœrulean tincture — his staff in his ungloved horny fingers — and his clouted shoon, — straight, discoloured pair of top-boots, — walking about without reflecting — to judge from his aspect — that the persons by whom he was surrounded had mouths which would make very little of demolishing a litigious farmer, with his whole stock and plenishing, and leaving no more vestige of him than remained of Actæon, after he fell in with those very instruments, which he himself had been wont to employ in the chase. If he had once fairly got into difficulties, and "a poinding" had gone out against him, the following would also apply,

*" Ille fugit, per quæ fuerat loca sæpe secutus :
Heu ! famulos fugit ipse suos ! Clamare libebat
Actæon ego sum ! Dominum cognoscite vestrum.
Verba animo desunt : resonat latrantibus æther."*

We cannot think that the Doctor has properly divested himself of the prejudices of 'a political creed,' in his estimation and representation of literary characters: for he too plainly betrays an intention (however vain) of throwing ridicule on some whom at the same time he pretends to admire. So far, the work is not only a satirical but an ill meaning publication, and has faults which all its genius, shrewdness, and amusing anecdote would vainly attempt to redeem. We hasten, however, over this disagreeable portion of it, to the consideration of matters more generally pleasing, and to which we wish it had been confined, instead of taking the unauthorized freedom of forging names and incidents in order to give it an air of popularity. It would then have

been

been an entertaining and unexceptionable production, and a happy delineation of the scenes and manners of the northern metropolis. Indeed, the lighter subjects are treated in a more masterly style than the serious and profound; and the description, for instance, of Edinburgh amusements, particularly dancing, is too good to be omitted:

'It is a great mistake under which the Scotch people lie, in supposing themselves to be excellent dancers, and yet one hears the mistake re-echoed by the most sensible, sedate, and dance-abhorring Presbyterians one meets with. If the only test of good dancing were activity, there is indeed no question, the northern beaux and belles might justly claim the pre-eminence over their brethren and sisters of the south. In an Edinburgh ball-room, there appears to be the same bustle, the same glorying in muscular agitation and alertness; the same "*sudor immanis*," to use the poet's phrase, which used of old to distinguish the sports of the Circus or the Campus Martius. But this is all; — the want of grace is as conspicuous in their performances, as the abundance of vigour. We desiderate the conscious tower-like poise, the easy, slow, unfatiguing glide of the fair pupils of D'Estainville. To say the truth, the ladies in Scotland dance in common pretty much like our country-lasses at a harvest-home. They kick and pant as if the devil were in them, and when they are young and pretty, it is undoubtedly no disagreeable thing to be a spectator of their athletic display; but I think they are very ignorant of dancing as a science. Comparatively few of them manage their feet well, and of these few, what a very insignificant portion know any thing about that equally important part of the art — the management of the arms; and then how absurdly they thrust out their shoulder-blades, how they neglect the undulation of the back! One may compare them to fine masses of silver, the little awkward workmanship bestowed on which rather takes from than adds to the natural beauty of the materials. As for the gentlemen, they seldom display even vigour and animation, unless they be half-drunken, — and they never display any thing else. It is fair, however, to mention, that in the true indigenous dances of the country, above all in the reel (the few times I saw it), these defects seemed in a great measure to vanish, so that ambition and affectation are after all at the bottom of their bad dancing in the present day, as well of their bad writing. The quadrille, notwithstanding, begins to take with the soil, and the girls can already go through most of its manœuvres without having recourse to their fans. But their beaux continue certainly to perform these new-fangled evolutions in a way that would move the utmost spleen of a Parisian butcher. What big, lazy, clumsy, fellows one sees, lumbering cautiously on toes that should not be called light and fantastic but heavy and syllogistic. It seems that there goes a vast deal of ratiocination to decide upon the moves of their game. The automaton does not play chess with such an air of lugubrious gravity. Of a surety, Terpsichore was never before worshipped by
such

such a solemn set of devotees: One of our own gloomy Welsh Jumpers, could he be suddenly transported among some sets that I have seen, would undoubtedly imagine himself to be in a satisfactory prayer-meeting; and yet these good people, put them fairly into a reel, can frisk it about with all possible demonstrations of hilarity. They prefer the quadrille, I imagine, upon much the same principle which leads a maid-servant to spend her two shillings on a tragedy rather than on a comedy. I could not help in my own mind likening these dolorous *pas seuls*, performed in rotation by each of the quadrillers, and then succeeded by the more clamorous display of sadness in their *chaine Angloise*, &c., to the account which Miss Edgeworth gives us of the Irish *lyke-wake*, wherein each of the cousins chaunts a stave of lamentation, *solo*, and the whole generation of them join in the screaming treble of the choral *Ulululuh! hu!* "Why did you leave the potatoes? What ailed thee, Pat, with the butter-milk?" &c. &c.'

We imagine that it is this caricature sort of description of passing trifles and events, which constitutes the chief merit of the work before us; and we hope that the young authors will confine themselves to it, in preference to publishing letters of a more exceptionable nature to such characters as Professors P—— and L——. They have very candidly expressed, in Peter's Letters, their disapprobation of some of their own compositions in the Magazine, and we trust that they are sincere. They are likewise German scholars: but, not satisfied with addressing violent epistles from *Baron Laurenwinkle*, concerning their enlightened countrymen, they have made use of their knowledge of the language to pay Frederick Schlegel the compliment of interlarding their own hasty compositions with valuable critical and philosophical observations from his Lectures on History, without making the least acknowledgment, or even using the decent precaution of *marking* their quotations. Could they really imagine that the diamond would not shine out too plainly amid their dross or that the hand of the master would not be perceived, though mixed with the incipient daubs of his pupils? It is in the course of his observations on Scotch education that the *soi-disant* Peter has enlightened his subject with such copious but concealed extracts from the work of that celebrated German; which may be seen by comparing vol. i. pages 158. to 162. with the commencement of Schlegel's Lectures on Modern History; and we would recommend it to our readers thus to compare the works for their amusement, either in the German original or in the English translation reported in our last Review, p. 148. It is rather singular that, while Peter accuses others of stealing whole pages from the Parlia-

Parliamentary Debates, and from Malthus, he should himself have such a predilection for plagiarism; for surely it is somewhat hard that he should attempt to establish a monopoly in his article.

In conclusion, (we would observe that this production is written in much too violent a strain both of eulogy and satire: of the latter of which the young Whigs of Scotland, as the gentlemen against whom the authors are pitted, come in for the greatest share. Allowing for the faults of youthful writers, however, and regarding it as the joint composition of the before mentioned Mr. L. and Mr. J. W., we must admit that the intellectual portion of the work is honourable to their talents. If they would divest themselves of the hackles of party, the littlenesses of local prejudice, and that love of ridicule which is not wit, and finally exchange the spirit of literary animosity in which they began for a disinterested love of literature itself, we should peruse with more pleasure any future series of their letters; which may exhibit as much ingenuity, united with knowledge of the world, and be unblemished by the faults of the present volumes.

*“ Ma d'ira insieme, e di vergogna avvampo
Quando tra lor' con ostinati oltraggi,
Si tendon gli scrittori insidie e inciampo.”*

SAL. ROSA.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, FOR NOVEMBER, 1819.

POETRY.

N. 12. *The Widow of the City of Nain*; and other Poems. By an Under-graduate of the University of Cambridge. 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Hatchard. 1819.

This is an elegant and virtuous little volume; and it has really refreshed us to read sensible thoughts expressed in classical language. What an illustration every new season of poetry affords the great truth, that pure taste and correct morals are indissolubly united in literature! Would to Heaven that they were really inseparable in life!

The subject of the principal poem in this publication is the marvellous restoration to life of the son of the widow in the Gospel: but the author has, judiciously, represented rather with brevity the main action, and has exerted his fullest strength on the events preceding that wonderful occurrence. The anxiety, the correspondence, the reviving hope, and the ultimate misery of the affectionate mother, are eloquently portrayed; and although
REV. Nov. 1819. Y brief,

brief, in comparison, the appearance of the SAVIOUR is both dignified and energetic. The attempt is bold, and gives us a strange sort of fear for the author as we read: but still we are far from thinking that he is unsuccessful.

‘ She ceased — upon the green hill’s brow
 A cloud of dust was gathering now:
 Hark! through the light air echoing loud
 The murmurs of a mingled crowd.
 Onward the tumult rolls — ’tis near —
 They listen, mute with breathless fear:
 Is it the lordly Roman’s car?
 The pomp and pageantry of war:
 Where Zion’s sons must swell the train,
 Of foes their inmost souls disdain?
 Or those bold warriors — wild, yet free —
 The rebel bands of Galilee?
 No — they are brethren — and that cry
 Is the glad shout of victory:
 ’Tis high Hosanna’s loud acclaim,
 ’Tis royal David’s honoured name.
 And now they wind the steep descent —
 The glance, in swift inquiry bent,
 Wander’d o’er all, but fix’d on one —
 Circled by numbers, yet alone.
 Robed in the garb of poverty,
 Nor king, nor priest, nor warrior he;
 Yet — why they know not — in his mien
 A latent loftiness was seen:
 A more than mortal majesty,
 That daunted while it fixed the eye.
 The countless throng that round him pressed,
 To him their songs of praise addressed;
 Not thus had Abram’s seed adored,
 A heathen chief — an earthly lord.
 They come — they meet — but, ere they past,
 One gracious, pitying look he cast
 On that pale mourner — marked her tear,
 And bade her “ weep not; ” — to the bier
 He turned — but, ere he spoke his will,
 Each trembled with a sudden thrill
 Of conscious awe — the train stood still !’

Surely the reader will be gratified by the following extract

‘ And who reclines expiring there? —
 It is her son — her only son; —
 The child of many a fervent prayer
 She loves as they can love alone
 Whose hearts are centred all in one.
 She had another once — but he
 Long since has been, where all must be: —
 He fell for Zion — happier far
 To die, as he had lived, unchained,

Than mourn that latest, deadliest war,
 And view her towers with slaughter stained,
 The temple of his God profaned.
 She saw — but could not share his fate,
 And exiled now, and broken-hearted,
 Far from her native vales departed
 To linger through her joyless date,
 In home that more became her state;
 And there in loneliness to mourn
 Until her orphan-babe was born.
 But from the moment of his birth
 She strove to check the murmuring tears:
 She had a hope, that still was dear
 A tie, that bound her still to earth; —
 And o'er him, though at times she wept,
 When Memory woke her past distress,
 And gazed upon him as he slept,
 And felt that he was fatherless —
 All was not suffering — as she prest
 Her blooming infant to her breast,
 And sought and shared his fond caress,
 And watched his opening loveliness, —
 Oft midst her sadness has she smiled
 Upon her yet unconscious child,
 Till passion's strife began to cease
 And sorrow softened into peace.
 Still, as from infancy he grew,
 His mother's love waxed stronger too:
 It was her sole delight to trace
 His father's features in his face,
 And fondly deem, in him restored,
 The image of her buried lord.

* * * * *

Alas ! while health and hope were high,
 And youth shone sparkling in his eye,
 And scarce was manhood's spring begun —
 Passed the destroying angel by,
 And smote the Widow's son !

is, we think, is very unexceptionable, and indeed so good
 sincerely hope that this author may be encouraged to
 onger and more laborious effort. We have not often seen
 e of success more reasonable, even in the difficult line of
 tion which he has chosen : but we would admonish him to
 er that the *terrestrial tastes* of man require a little atten-
 the progress of his heavenly lucubrations. Let him not
 er us with *Sacred Music*, and we have no doubt that we
 able to listen again with pleasure, when he takes down his
 n the willows of the Euphrates, or adds another strain to
 us of nightingales on the banks of the Jordan.
 nclude with the

‘ *Song of a Captive Jew in Babylon.*

- ‘ Let the broad veil of darkness be rolled from before thee,
 Oh Lord ! and descend on the wing of the storm ;
 Dispersed or enslaved are the saints that adore thee,
 And the rude hands of strangers thy temple deform :
 And Salem, our Salem, lies low and degraded,
 While far from her ruins in exile we pine ;
 Yet still is the hope of thy “ remnant ” unfaded —
 The hand which implants it, Jehovah, is thine.
- ‘ Alas ! we were warned, but we recked not the warning,
 Till our warriors grew weak in the day of despair ;
 And our glory was fled, as the light cloud of morning,
 That gleams for a moment, and melts into air ;
 As the proud heathens trampled o’er Zion’s sad daughter,
 She wept tears of blood o’er her guilt and her woe ;
 For the voice of her God had commissioned the slaughter,
 The rod of his vengeance had pointed the blow.
- ‘ Though foul are the sins, oh ! thou lost one, which stain thee,
 The tear of repentance can wash them away ;
 Though galling and base are the bonds that enchain thee,
 The God who imposed them can lighten their sway.
 For a star yet shall rise o’er the darkness of Judah,
 A Branch yet shall flourish on Jesse’s proud stem ;
 And Zion shall triumph o’er those that subdued her,
 Yea, — triumph in giving a Saviour to them !’

This appears to us better than the attempts of either Lord Byron or Mr. Moore, in the same style. The present author has a severer spirit (*magis sacrum sapit*) than his predecessors. Let him, however, remember our friendly warning just given, and go on and prosper. Let him not doubt the possibility of varying and enlivening sacred with profane subjects, in a dignified manner ; in a manner that will add a general charm to the former, while it ennobles, purifies, and clothes the latter with redoubled beauty and utility. The problem is difficult to solve : but Milton may be his great example and encouragement.

Art. 13. *The Law of Mercy*, a Poetical Essay on the Punishment of Death, with Illustrative Notes. 8vo. pp. 70. Arch. 1819.

Though a ‘ Poetical Essay on the Punishment of Death ’ does not form a very attractive title, we have read the poem with pleasure, both as an evidence that the wise and merciful sentiments which it illustrates are every day becoming more general, and also as a means of facilitating their still more extended circulation. The author speaks very modestly of his powers as a poet, and wishes ‘ the reflections to be considered as if the language of poetry had not been employed : ’ but he needs not be ashamed of either. His stanzas are always euphonous, and often vigorous, and his reflections are those of the most enlightened of philosophers and senators. The following extract contains a fair example of both :

- ‘ Christian we would be — yet our penal rules
 Both love and Christian discipline abhor ;

Pagan we would not — yet from Pagan schools
Cull the chief maxims of this civil war.

What then! the Christian policy of love
Suits not the temper of this iron age;
And Gospel-weapons all too feeble prove,
The pow'rs of sin and darkness to engage.

And Britain, for dominion mild renown'd,
For virtuous deeds the paragon and pride,
Holds up her pandect-volume iron-bound
With twice one hundred bloody statutes dyed.

So then, the more in virtues we excel,
The more must bloody laws our virtues guard;
And vice with more atrocious acts rebel,
As virtue reaps a higher proud reward.

So might our moral excellence proceed,
With vice progressive following in its train,
Till every hour might doom a wretch to bleed,
And every statute wear a crimson stain.

Unnatural system! As the arts of life
Improve, and Christian principle extends;
Judicial vengeance marks the legal strife
With deadlier aim, and in destruction ends.

When, in speaking of the inefficacy of capital punishment, and the mildness of its actual execution, he exclaims,

'If to enforce example — arm the deed
Like Pagan Phalaris, with shrieks of wo!'

we think that he runs the risk of being mistaken as an advocate for adding more horrors to the last moments of the dying convict; a charge, however, which his note on the lines will repel. Still, as these notes, from being at the end of the book, may be overlooked, we would recommend the omission of lines liable to such a dangerous misconception.

We know not by what licence even a poet can give two quantities to the same word.

'Can courtly tribunals and solemn guards.' P. 12.

'Before the dread tribunal of the skies.' P. 16.

'A tribunal that rules with high controul.' P. 45.

Art. 14. *The Fall of the Leaf; and other Poems.* By Charles Bucke, Author of "The Italians," "The Philosophy of Nature," and "Amusements in Retirement." 8vo. pp. 92. Whittaker. 1819.

We are very sorry that we cannot bring ourselves to congratulate this author on his poetical powers, as far as they are shewn in the present little volume. The reason of our *regret* on the occasion is that, both in this work and in some others, as we think, he has evinced very commendable industry of literary research, and very sufficient talents. He has, besides, been severely treated, and has

has therefore a claim on critical indulgence, where it can be fairly bestowed.

In our lxxvth volume, N.S. p. 362., we have given a favourable report of Mr. Bucke's "Philosophy of Nature." * To his "Amusements in Retirement" we were unable to pay attention in due time; and we can only now say, *en passant*, that it was the work of a scholar and a man of ability, although often, we think, deficient in arrangement, and sometimes rather ostentatious in the display of extensive reading.

From the small volume before us, we will give our readers a specimen both of the familiar and the more dignified style of the author. We think that the former degenerates into prose, and that the latter is big with names, but unproductive of sympathy.

‘ *The Fall of the Leaf; an Epistle to a Friend.*

‘ Then we will visit old Aristo's home,
Rear'd in a meadow near the public way.
None ever went discouraged from his door!
Soon as he sees a stranger at his gate
The good old farmer quits his fragrant porch,
And down the pathway of his garden steals:
Then to his servants gives the cheerful call.—
They hear—they heap the blazing fire anew;
Place on the table bread, and cheese, and milk,
And home-brew'd ale, and wholesome gooseberry
Then near the corner of the fire they place
The cheerful pipe. Aristo at the gate
With open'd hand invites the traveller in.
The weary traveller, blushing and obliged,
Scrapes his soil'd shoes; and bending with delight
Follows his host, admiring as he goes:
Enters the porch—respects the well-wash'd floor—
Accepts the chair. Aristo lifts the jug;—
Declares him welcome;—vows 'twill rain all night—
“ You'd better therefore stay the night with me.”
The stranger smiles; Aristo cries, “ content!”
And all is comfort round the crackling fire.”

wine.

‘ *Hymn to the Moon.*

‘ Thee Spenser woo'd;—the sweetest bard, that e'er
Gave to the trials of earth's pilgrimage
A sacred charm;—and Shakspeare,—bard sublime,—
Who walk'd with Nature, yet who dwelt with man;
And probed him to the bottom of his heart,
From infancy to age:—E'en Shakspeare loved
T' invite thy solemn lustre.—Tasso, too,
Kindled his genius at thy midnight lamp:
And that sweet poet, who resembled him;—

* The author announces this work to be in course of re-publication, enlarged, and we doubt not improved.

Who

Who made the passions musical ; — who knew
The bond and charm of liberty divine ; —
Mercy's rich attributes, the soul of man
Quickening with heavenly love.' —

The fact is that *all* poets have loved the moon ; and to give a
t of them, or of the flowers that flourish under its influence, is,
say the least, a superfluous task,

There are other parts of these poems which fail still more ob-
ously. We think that the author has partaken of that strained
d forced *excess* of tenderness, which so many persons in Eng-
nd judged it necessary to assume on our really melancholy loss
the Princess Charlotte. *Par exemple* :

' Oh sure ! — a time so sad has never been !
Oh ! sure — the suffering world has never seen
Its hopes so blighted ! sure — relentless fate
Ne'er left a people's heart so — desolate !
Oh heaven ! — But stay —.'

e could suggest a passage strikingly analogous to these exclama-
ons : but we forbear.

The enthusiasm of the following lines, from *the Fall of the*
raf, is something beyond "the modesty of truth and nature,"
we should humbly conceive :

' Oh ! I could pause on Numa's sacred name,
From the first dawning of Aurora's ray,
Till Venus, glowing in the vault of eve,
Reluctant bids the darkening world adieu.'

We might select many other objectionable passages, — some
ry, tame and some very wild : but we prefer to close our brief
port ; admonishing the author that much learning, and much
ite also, may coincide with many faults in poetical expression ;
and, as an illustration of our warning, we beg him to revise
e subjoined lines :

' Now in numbers, wild and strong,
Each harp resounds *the following song*.' P. 55.
' They heard — the lovely bride's maid and the bride ; —
They heard ; — *the latter* fell upon her side.' P. 58.

NOVEL.

rt. 15. *Nightmare Abbey*: by the Author of *Headlong Hall*.
12mo. pp. 218. 6s. 6d. Boards. Hookham. 1818.

We cannot offer kinder advice to the reader in this dreary
onth of November, than by recommending him to read this
ry entertaining novel. The gloomy philosophy and metaphy-
cal poetry of the present day are exposed with so humorous
d masterly a hand, and the characters of those who, as Hudib-
as has it,

" Find racks for their own minds, and vaunt
Of their own misery and want,"

are painted with so much wit and spirit, that he must be splenetic indeed whose muscles will not relax at the drollery of the exhibition. That author deserves well of his country who, in times like the present, can excite a laugh in which mankind may join without malice, and indulge without compunction. In the gradation of literary dignities which we would recommend, this writer should receive the rank that he has merited. While, therefore, we remember the pleasure which we experienced from his two former works, *Headlong Hall*, and *Melincourt**, let us, for the additional proof of his genius, now award to him equal honour with a Bashaw of *three TALES*.

We may just introduce our readers to two or three of the principal personages of the story, in order to give them *a taste* of the author's piquant mode of writing, without diminishing their interest in its progress if they afterward peruse the whole.

' Nightmare Abbey, a venerable family-mansion, in a highly picturesque state of semi-dilapidation, pleasantly situated on a strip of dry land between the sea and the fens, at the verge of the county of Lincoln, had the honor to be the seat of Christopher Glowry, Esq. This gentleman was naturally of an atrabilious temperament, and much troubled with those phantoms of indigestion which are commonly called *blue devils*. He had been deceived in an early friendship: he had been crossed in love; and had offered his hand, from pique, to a lady who had accepted it from interest, and who, in so doing, violently tore asunder the bonds of a tried and youthful attachment. Her vanity was gratified by being the mistress of a very extensive, if not very lively, establishment; but all the springs of her sympathies were frozen. Riches she possessed, but that which enriches them, the participation of affection, was wanting. All that they could purchase for her became indifferent to her, because that which they could not purchase, and which was more valuable than themselves, she had, for their sake, thrown away. She discovered, when it was too late, that she had mistaken the means for the end; — that riches, rightly used, are instruments of happiness, but are not in themselves happiness. In this wilful blight of her affections, she found them valueless as means: they had been the end to which she had immolated all her affections, and were now the only end that remained to her.' —

' His only son and heir Mr. Glowry had christened Scythrop from the name of a maternal ancestor, who had hanged himself one rainy day in a fit of *tædium vitæ*, and had been eulogized by a coroner's jury in the comprehensive phrase of *felo de se*; on which account Mr. Glowry held his memory in high honor, and made a punch-bowl of his skull.' —

' At the house of his uncle, Mr. Hilary, Scythrop first saw the beautiful Miss Emily Girouette. He fell in love; which is nothing new. He was favourably received; which is nothing strange. Mr. Glowry and Mr. Girouette had a meeting on the occasion.

* See vol. lxxxii. p. 330., and vol. lxxxiii. p. 322.

quarrelled about the terms of the bargain; which is neither nor strange. The lovers were torn asunder, weeping and giving everlasting constancy; and, in three weeks after this fatal event, the lady was led a smiling bride to the altar, by honourable Mr. Lackwit; which is neither strange nor new.

HISTORY.

16. *An Historical and Topographical Account of the Town Woburn, its Abbey, and Vicinity*; containing also a concise genealogy of the House of Russell, and Memoirs of the late Francis Duke of Bedford. 12mo. pp. 140. 6s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

This is a very neat little production, (the first attempt, we are told, of a youth only 19 years of age,) and contains all the information both of the antient and present state of Woburn, which an inhabitant of the town or of its vicinity can require. The matter is well arranged, and the style is correct and easy. In such an attempt, the reader will of course find a record of the munificent benefactions of the House of Russell, as well as the concise genealogy promised in the title-page; and the grateful feelings of enthusiasm towards that illustrious family are still farther evidenced by some elegant and spirited "stanzas," which are not inappositely introduced. They are written by one of the authors of "Poems by Friends," of which we gave a favourable report in our Review for December 1813. — After having described the trial and death of Lord William Russell, the poet thus proceeds, and introduces the well-known answer of his father to the unfortunate s II.

- ‘ And now in marble or a mound,
The holy ashes lie
Of HIM, when girt by danger round,
“ Who scorn’d to fear or fly :”
Patriot ! Pole — Roman — Switzer — Greek !
Whate’er ye sought below, or seek —
There read your homily :
It tells — and ages vouch it true,
Earth is no home for such as you.
- ‘ But O, ye martyrs ! from your bones,
Your voices yet are heard ;
There is a magic in the tones,
A spirit in each word :
And blood to living veins belongs
Which proudly throbs at RUSSELL’s wrongs !
So happy ! so adored !
His name, a beacon of the past,
While seasons roll, while planets last.
- ‘ But turn ye to avenging time,
To a successive age,
And read the moral of the crime
In History’s tragic page.

See the dark mover of the deed,
James, to the injured Bedford plead,
For aid in civil rage;
His fortunes into ruin hurled,
The scorn or pity of the world.

“ Ah, Sir! long years have shed their snow,”
The mourning father said,
“ Upon the tresses of this brow,
And bowed this aged head.
Now in the sunset of my course,
Feeble and withered is my force,
But I *had* once — to aid,
Or your fallen fortunes to restore,
A son! but he is now no more!”

Engraved views of Woburn-church and Woburn-abbey decorate the volume.

E D U C A T I O N.

Art. 17. *Reciprocal Duties of Parents and Children.* By Mrs. Taylor, Author of “*Maternal Solitude*,” “*Practical Hints*,” &c. &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 176. 5s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1818.

Mrs. Taylor cannot write ill, and the subject of this little work is peculiarly adapted to her powers. Of her remarks, all of which may be read with advantage by both the old and the young, we prefer those in the chapter on ‘*Partiality*.’ Were we to make any objection to the book, we should say that the style is rather too *serious*.

P O L I T I C S.

Art. 18. *The Political House that Jack built.* With 13 Cuts. 8vo. 1s. Hone.

So we are to go back to our *nurseries* for our political parodies, if the *church* repels them! We do not, however, see any capability either in the machine or the mover of it, which, in this instance, can reconcile us to the retrogradation of the go-cart. Mr. Hone’s razor is not so very sharp that even his 13 cuts will produce much mischief: but it is sufficiently *rough* in its application to the higher powers, royal, political, and clerical.

The *printing-press* is here stated to be

‘ THE THING

That, in spite of new Acts
And attempts to restrain it
By Soldiers or Tax,
Will poison the vermin
That plunder the wealth
That lay in the house
That Jack built;’

and rightly enough is the importance of this machine to the existence

ence of a free state *pressed* on the public mind: but the abuse of it is more likely than any other cause to induce Englishmen to consent to its restraint. At the present moment, then, it may more than ever be necessary to guard our countrymen against the consequences of provoking this feeling on the one hand, and, on the other, of giving way to the dangerous practice of arguing against the use of any thing from its abuse.

Art. 19. *A Letter to the Freeholders of the County of Durham, on the Proceedings of the County-Meeting, 21st October; and particularly on the Speech of John George Lambton, Esq. M. P. By the Reverend Henry Phillpotts, M. A. Prebendary of Durham.* 8vo. 1s. Murray, &c.

Mr. Phillpotts professes to be 'a sincere lover of our common country, and an ardent admirer of her unequalled laws.' We are glad to hear it, and would by no means impeach the declaration. We admit also that he writes with vigour and spirit: but he has taken a side, and he defends it like an advocate, with skill for his own case, but not always with fairness of argument towards his opponents: nor, in speaking of Mr. Lambton, does he write with the urbanity of a gentleman, any more than with the coolness of a person who seeks only to find the truth in a discussion. He acknowledges that the *Resolutions* adopted at the Durham meeting respecting the transactions at Manchester were moderate, as they certainly were; yet many of his subsequent remarks are not only inconsistent with this fact, but are unfairly grounded on the words of those Resolutions. We have not, however, time or room to enter into detail.

We suspect that many of the partizans of government, who so urgently reprehend these meetings on the subject of the Manchester affair, as prejudging those who were concerned in it, would not think of advancing this objection, if the purport of such meetings were reversed, and addresses were voted to the Regent, approving the conduct of the Lancashire magistrates, and calling for justice on the agents at the *riotous* and *traitorous* meeting of 16th August.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 20. *Letters of Curran to the Rev. H. Weston, written in the Years 1773 and 1774.* 8vo. pp. 45. Hookham. 1819.

In this small pamphlet we have five of Curran's letters to a valued and intimate friend, written at an interesting period of his life; viz. at the age of twenty-four, when he was commencing his studies at the English bar. They will form, as they are intended, no unpleasant appendix to the "*Recollections of Curran and some of his Contemporaries*," our recent notice of which (Review for September, 1818,) will render it unnecessary for us now to do more than lay an extract or two before our readers; in which will be discovered the kindling of the star that afterward shone so brilliantly.

The first passage that we shall select exhibits Mr. Curran's view

of the causes of the difference of character between the English and the Irish peasant. He is describing a journey to Windsor, and has just been praising the simplicity and modesty of the country-girls.

'I can't say, however, that I was so taken with the faces of the swains; I believe most strongly that an English peasant must be very nearly as bad as an Hottentot, except that he is better fed, and better covered. In every stupid face you meet, you may read more than ever you conceived of an English boor; haughty, ignorant, unsociable, credulous, unaccommodating: how different, abject as they are, our poor countrymen!

'Their fondness for genealogy, so much despised here, and not without reason, yet gives them an advantage they could derive from no other source. When each poor individual is supposed to contain in his own person the accumulated honors of many generations, they are led to treat each other with a politeness and respect proportioned to this imaginary merit, and to cultivate a friendly intercourse that contributes not a little to reclaim, and even to refine the sentiments of the illiterate; and I have often thought, their manner of lamenting over their dead co-operates strongly to preserve and improve this untutored sort of politeness, by keeping alive something like a taste for composition in a language, that wants neither expression nor extent, and by preventing that language from a decay, into which it must otherwise have fallen: and to these you add the severe political grievances, and the still more cruel miserable inducement to a strict association, the community of affliction and wretchedness, more than can be found in either France or Germany, and yet fostered in the bosom of a constitution boasted to be free. You will smile, no doubt, at these observations as being unseasonable as well as exaggerated. To the first I must plead guilty; but for the latter, there certainly is some truth in it, would to Heaven there was not so much! But we shall never get to Windsor at this rate.'

The next quotation will shew both the resolution and the ingenuity of this celebrated advocate:

'I still continue to read ten hours every day, seven at law, and three at history or the general principles of politics; and that I may have time enough, I rise at half after four. I have contrived a machine, after the manner of an hour-glass, which perhaps you may be curious to know, which awakens me regularly at that hour. Exactly over my head I have suspended two vessels of tin, one above the other: when I go to bed, which is always at ten, I pour a bottle of water into the upper vessel, in the bottom of which is a hole of such a size, as to let the water pass through, so as to make the inferior reservoir overflow in six hours and a half. I have had no small trouble in proportioning those vessels; and I was still more puzzled for a while how to confine my head so as to receive the drop, but I have at length succeeded.'

Art. 21. *A detailed Statement of the Case of His Royal Highness the Duke of Kent.* 8vo. pp. 104. Williams. 1819.

So

So much has frequently been said respecting the Duke of Kent's case, in the public prints and the debates in Parliament, that the general outline of it must be tolerably well known: but we learn from the present pamphlet that his Royal Highness's 'friends, who have had the management of his affairs for the last four years,' have judged it necessary to give a *detailed statement* of it at the present moment. They have taken this opportunity chiefly with reference to the pending sale of the Duke's estate at Castle Hill, near Ealing, for the purpose of defraying his debts; and in order 'that his Royal Highness's countrymen may judge *for themselves* whether his conduct merits animadversion for extravagance, or commendation for the fortitude and patience with which he has struggled, during a long series of years, against a succession of misfortunes, disappointments, and privations, such as are not frequently to be met with in common life, and scarcely ever in the exalted station in which Providence has placed him.'

A sovereign prince, or his immediate or near relatives, in a wealthy state, can seldom be duly acquainted with the value of money, until privation has enforced the lesson: nor is it desirable that such personages should acquire this knowledge in a degree which could engender avarice, or even a feeling that is adverse to generous liberality. Yet a monarch should know that there are limits to the expenditure even of an empire, which limits are the comforts of a people; and the branches of his family should feel that their disbursements ought to be regulated by their income, because otherwise they will commit the moral crime of trespassing on the fair claims of creditors, and of creating *want*, of which they themselves have no idea, in the families of those whom, if they acted otherwise, they would contribute to protect and support.

On this subject, it is too notorious that some members of our royal family, like many other persons of rank, have not always adopted the course which prudence and justice would have dictated; and when the Duke of Kent's friends, in the sentence above quoted, speak of leaving the public to decide whether his Royal Highness has been open to any allegation of this kind, we must say that it is more open to the readers of the statement to observe that evidence on this head is not here laid before them. It remains, therefore, to be regretted that the facts, long well-known, of his Royal Highness's large disbursements at his several residences, during the period of his acknowledged pecuniary difficulties, present an undiminished testimony that the Duke's magnificence was not controlled by caution.

With regard to the other point, the asserted losses and privations of his Royal Highness, we shall remark with equal freedom and conscientiousness, that it appears to us that the Duke's friends *have* grounds for thus representing his case. The principal circumstances of this nature will appear by an extract from a memorial presented by his Royal Highness to the Prince Regent in the year 1815.

'That your Memorialist, from the year 1785 to 1790, had scarcely what can be termed any allowance from his Majesty
fo

for personal expences*; and consequently during that period incurred a considerable debt, which, with interest from that time until 1806, when it was paid off, bore very hard upon him.

‘ That in 1790, when first sent to Gibraltar, he had no allowance for outfit, nor any provision for his establishment, except the small sum from his Majesty’s privy purse of 5000l. a year, for his expences; which he continued to receive until 1799, when it ceased, and he got the parliamentary allowance of 12,000l. a year.

‘ That your Memorialist has incurred a debt of 36,450l. for principal and interest on successive losses sustained in baggage and necessaries whilst on the passage to America, and in the West Indies, as was proved per original certificate from his agents, Messrs. Greenwood, Cox, and Co., and from Francis Freeling, Esq., the secretary to the Post-Office, formerly delivered to the Treasury.

‘ That your Memorialist, having been brought up in early life with the Duke of Clarence, and in every way treated alike by his Majesty, expected that at the age of twenty-four years he should have obtained the same allowance of 12,000l. a year from Parliament, which the Duke of Clarence at that age had received; that that allowance would have enabled him to have paid off all his debts incurred up to that period, and prevented the unpleasant situation in which he is now placed by not having received that Parliamentary allowance until 1799, when he was thirty-two years of age.’ —

‘ That, in order to exhibit the hardship under which your Memorialist labours, and to bring the situation of the Duke of Clarence into fair comparison with his, a statement has been prepared, and is herewith annexed, to shew that the Duke of Clarence has, since he attained the age of twenty-four years, received, in income and other advantages, to the amount of 238,000l. sterling beyond what your Memorialist has had, and for which great difference there does not appear any just ground.’

This memorial having been presented through the medium of Lord Liverpool, the Prince Regent’s answer to it was conveyed by that nobleman to the Duke. It stated that the Prince was unable, for various reasons, urged with reference to the several points, to afford to his royal brother ‘ the relief’ which was solicited; and it contained also this paragraph:

‘ Your Royal Highness having however rested your case in a great measure on the advantages which the Duke of Clarence has enjoyed in preference to your Royal Highness, the Prince has directed me to observe upon this head, that the Duke of Clarence from his situation has been incapable of holding either regiment, government, or staff allowance, or in short, any annual

* It appears in the Statement, p. 2., that this allowance was only one guinea and a half for pocket money, out of 1000l. per annum, of which the Duke’s governor had the disposal.

come beyond the parliamentary grant, since the period he was employed in the navy, except his half-pay; whereas your Royal Highness has been in the enjoyment for many years of a considerable part of the military advantages above stated.'

The losses of military baggage, sustained by the Duke of Kent, were certainly very extraordinary in their number and succession. In 1793-4, equipage of this description to the value of 2000*l.* lost through the ice in crossing Lake Champlain: in September 1794 a shipment to a similar amount, intended to replace the former, was captured in the Antelope packet by the French: a third time, this event occurred by the capture of the Tankerville packet in February 1795: on the Duke's advancement in rank, and appointment to command, in 1796, a fourth consignment of stores, to the enlarged amount of 4000*l.*, became the prey of the enemy by their capture of the transport conveying it to Halifax; and in 1799, when his Royal Highness was nominated Commander in Chief in North America, a transport wholly laden with his baggage and equipment was wrecked on the Sable island, by which he sustained a loss of 11,000*l.*:—making altogether the sum of 21,000*l.*, for which it does not appear that the Duke has received any compensation.

We must refrain from entering farther into this 'Case:' but not from expressing our regret for the difficulties of a member of the royal family, who has much ingratiated himself with the public by his talents and his amiable sentiments; and whose present endeavours to extricate himself evince his sense of the principle which, if it had previously operated, would have tended to prevent their occurrence, at least in part. One other remark we must make in conclusion. The Duke's 'friends' say that 'it will appear clear,' from previous statements, 'that, unless the present plan of disposing of the Duke's estate at Castle Hill to advantage should prove successful, it will be impossible for his Royal Highness to continue to gratify the wish nearest his heart, and that of the Duchess, of residing amongst his countrymen.' We would strenuously oppose this inference. The retrenchments which his Royal Highness may find necessary, in this just purpose, will only endear him the more to the British public, to whatever extent of privacy they may bring his mode of life; *pro tempore*; and, "*Ou peut on être mieux qu'au sein de sa famille?*"

S I N G L E S E R M O N .

Art. 22. *On the Influence of the Clergy in improving the Condition of the Poor*; by the Rev. William Otter, M.A. F.L.S. Preached at Ludlow, the 26th of May, 1818, before the Venerable Joseph Corbett, Archdeacon of Salop, and the Clergy of his Archdeaconry; and published at their Request. To which is added, an Appendix; containing the Plan of a Provident Society for a Country Village. 4to. 2s. Mawman.

Mr. Otter has here very judiciously called the consideration of the clergy to the increasing pauperism of the country, and to the enormous

enormous contributions for its relief which are annually levied on the industry of the community. How can the attention of this great, learned, and useful body, be turned to a subject of more general importance? Their ministerial functions would surely be beneficially exercised in diminishing the mass of mendicity and indigence, which threatens to paralyze the arm of national industry, and to wither that energy of independence by which the peasantry of this kingdom were once so gloriously characterized. The Gospel, when rationally interpreted, is well calculated to inspire in every breast such an elevated tone of moral sentiment, as will render the individual unwilling to crouch for parochial relief, when he can earn his subsistence by the honest vigour of personal exertion. No good Christian will wish to be burdensome to the community; and he will endeavour to prevent the necessity of a recurrence to the funds of public charity, under the pressure of sickness and of age, by habitual frugality and unremitting diligence in the period of health and strength. The indigent are, at present, but too apt to consider the poor-rate as a fund from which it behoves them to draw as much as they can, by every mode of extortion and every artifice: thus, that rate, which was designed only to succour real and unavoidable infirmity and distress, becomes the direct means of relaxing the sinews of the national industry; and of vitiating, in the most alarming degree, the moral sentiments of the people. Mr. Otter wisely and patriotically exhorts his brethren to counteract this mischievous tendency, by such representations of the Christian doctrine as will incite persons in the more humble spheres of life to cherish the spirit of independence, and not to rest on the exertions of others when they can obtain a sufficiency by their own.

CORRESPONDENCE.

'*A young Lady of Eighteen*' does us much honour by her flattering remarks, and gives us much satisfaction by the opinion that she expresses of the benefit which she derives from a perusal of our labours, as a view of the literature of the age. We shall be happy to have a similar letter from her at any time, and all times, for twenty or thirty years to come; when she may be able to speak of transferring similar benefits to a family of smiling "heirs of their father's valour, and heiresses of their mother's beauty."

The mind of *Atrox* seems to be of the hue which his signature denotes. We shall therefore adopt the well-known advice,

"Hic niger est; hunc tu, Romane, caveto."

Other letters remain for consideration.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1819.

ART. I. *Specimens of Irish Eloquence*, now first arranged and collected, with Biographical Notices and a Preface. By Charles Phillips, Esq. Barrister at Law. Illustrated by Portraits. 8vo. pp. 450. 10s. 6d. Boards. Reynolds, Baldwin and Co. 1819.

It has been the sportive paradox of speculative minds, to question the advantages of that inestimable art which diffuses and perpetuates the products of genius. Although, it has been remarked, the press preserves the literature of every age from the moth or the book-worm, and secures the monuments of the intellect from the unlettered ferocity of an Omar, still it consecrates indiscriminately good and bad authors; so that he who is deservedly consigned to oblivion, and lost in the general neglect of his contemporaries, continues to bend the shelves of our libraries, and elbows the writers to whom each successive age brings a fresh accumulation of glory. These ingenious sophists, however, did not advert to the annihilating powers of the chandler and the trunk-maker: by whose happy agency a sort of equilibrium is preserved, similar to that which philosophy has attributed to the operations of nature, of which the regularity depends on alternate decay and generation. Were it otherwise, fancy itself must be appalled by contemplating the mob of bad publications which would over-run and oppress our national literature.

At a time, however, when authorship has advanced to so high a perfection that books are almost numerically equal to readers, it is impossible to appreciate this salutary waste too highly. Its utility is not slightly illustrated by the work now before us, which has evidently been "got up" for no other purpose than that of being sold, and is of course executed with only the care and diligence that are usually bestowed on goods so manufactured: — but, had it exhibited the utmost precision and fidelity, it would have been our duty to pronounce it superfluous, because nearly all the contents of it were already accessible to every reader. Of those contents, nearly one-fourth is a well-known speech of Mr. Burke

on the conciliation of the colonies. Now the speeches of this eminent orator, whom (with what justice we do not at present inquire) Mr. Phillips calls an *unadulterated specimen* of the Irish school of eloquence, have been given in multiplied collections: his entire works occupy their legitimate place in almost every library: several *selections* of his speeches have appeared; and even his "Beauties" have been attempted to be extracted from the general body of his productions. As for the speeches of Mr. Curran, and of Mr. Sheridan, they also have been very recently collected. Yet such are the principal materials out of which Mr. Phillips has formed the present compilation.

This censure, moreover, is not to be evaded by the motives alleged for the publication. We are told in the preface that 'the malignant prejudices of a northern critic, so self-sufficiently pronounced upon the Irish school of eloquence, determined the editor upon collecting such materials as might give the impartial an opportunity of judging for themselves.' Had impartial persons no means of deciding the question without the assistance of these specimens? If those orators who happen to have been born in Ireland are to be classed in the Irish school, (and Mr. Phillips has no other criterion) were not the recollections of every tolerably informed reader furnished with a roll of examples more than sufficient to vindicate the eloquence of Ireland from contempt? For our part, had she produced no eloquent men but Burke and Sheridan, we should not have been unmindful "*quantos viros emiserit*;" and we should have gratefully hailed her as the mother and nurse of some of our brightest statesmen. These are names, indeed, almost sufficient to redeem the very vices of the school; with which, however, in our opinion, those great men were uninfected.

Surely, Mr. Phillips has mistaken what his opponent meant by the 'Irish school of eloquence.' It was not intended, we conceive, to deny to Ireland the production of very many excellent orators:—but a *school* is merely a name for a prevailing manner. The Venetian, the Flemish, and the Roman schools are only classifications of different manners of painting, so denominated from prevalent and local peculiarities; and thus the Irish school of eloquence has derived its name from the prevailing habits of writing and speaking in that country. It is their appropriate and characteristic manner which constitutes the school. Whatever affinity, therefore, may be found between the eloquence of Mr. Burke and that of the Irish school, we think that Mr. Phillips had no claim whatever to Mr. Sheridan, who at a very early age

was transplanted to one of our public seminaries, and was therefore trained and nurtured to fame and eloquence in England. An editor, so tremblingly alive to the attacks made on the Irish school, should have confined himself exclusively to examples that would be universally considered as illustrations of it: but the remark which, it seems, has been the unwary cause of this publication, was surely never intended to include the names of Sheridan, or Flood, or of Panket. The republication of their speeches, therefore, was unnecessary; and Mr. Phillips might with as much propriety have reprinted Berkeley's *Theory of Vision*, or the *Principles of the Human Understanding*, under an apprehension lest Ireland should be denied the felicity of having produced great philosophers.

If our acceptation of what is usually called the Irish school be correct, Mr. Curran is the individual whom we should deem the most complete example as well as the most shining ornament of it. His speeches combined its most prominent beauties and defects; those beauties frequently overshadowed, as it were, by their neighbouring deformities; and those very deformities sometimes consecrated by their adjoining beauties. Tried within the jurisdiction of severe taste, the style would be condemned as too florid and Asiatic. We are grieved at his unrestrained appetite for decoration. We look in vain for those under-parts in rhetoric, which ought to be occasionally interposed as resting places to relieve the mind in its efforts to follow him. Every topic, whether primary or subordinate, is dressed in the same gorgeous trappings. More ambitious of startling and surprizing than of fixing a steady and gradual conviction in the understanding, he misses the object which ought to be the exclusive aim of the orator. He deserts the high-road to the human heart by perpetual deviations after the flowers that grow by the way-side. The unintermitted play of metaphor dazzles and fatigues us. In the perusal of his speeches, we are indulged to satiety with a gaudy succession of images, scattered about by a fancy perpetually at work, but not unfrequently offending us by that which is fatal to an image, the want of congruity and fitness. The reason and the judgment reject the unsubstantial and airy creations of an unfettered imagination: they demand that chaste though not unadorned diction, in which the cause itself may be said to speak, and the pleader is comparatively silent.

We do not seek to retract the praise which, on a former occasion, (*N. S.* vol. lxxxii. p. 391.) we so willingly awarded to the great powers of Mr. Curran. Our admiration of those

powers is still undiminished, and his noble exertions in the cause of liberty and justice we shall always place among the brightest specimens of forensic eloquence: but we lament the faults of his style in the very proportion in which they seem to arise out of its merits. The facility of transition from the sublime to the ridiculous is now an imperial aphorism *; and he seems on some occasions to wander too far into that doubtful province, in which the lines that divide the pathetic from the absurd become faint and undistinguishable. It is a manner, too, which unfortunately lies more within the competence of inferior minds, than the simpler and more sedate elocution which wields a dominion not merely over the affections but over the reason of mankind; and hence it is a species which has uniformly been incident to the decline of the art, forming one of the symptoms of that intellectual decrepitude of nations in which the youthful vigor and healthy simplicity of its literature are for ever extinguished. One of the tests of excellence laid down by Horace is that it appears susceptible of imitation, but is in fact inimitable: yet Mr. Curran has been imitated and caricatured to so extravagant an excess, that the modern Irish school has been considered as one of the types and forerunners of that declension, which several judicious observers have of late discerned and lamented in British eloquence. Among those who have thus haunted his genius, the most idolatrous, the most faithful even to mimicry, is Mr. Phillips; an imitator assuredly not exempted from a portion of the predestinated curse of his tribe, which dooms them to aim at the beauties but to be most successful in attaining the faults of their model.

Our readers shall judge for themselves by an extract which we make from the preface, and which will be at once a sample of the diction of Mr. Phillips and of the rhetorical maxims by which it seems to have been disciplined. Speaking of the Irish school, he says:

‘ One of its peculiarities and which has been most condemned is the continual recurrence of imagery. No doubt the abuse of this, like all other abuses, is censurable, but still its exercise, even in the extreme, is very fascinating, and few who have been in the habits of attending public meetings can deny its effect. The untutored heart speaks in imagery; — it is the first language of a nation's infancy, and like every thing attached to infancy, it retains a charm; — it is the vocabulary of nature, and until man be-

* *Du sublime au ridicule il n'y a qu'un pas*, said Bonaparte.

† The exercise of an abuse? *qu.* or of a peculiarity?

so hardened and polished that nature's weapons must rebound from him, it will not plead in vain. Indeed, the very face of nature itself must be changed ere the genius of Ireland ceases to express itself in imagery :—it opens its *infant* eye upon the wildness of creation, the romantic and the magnificent identify themselves with its imagination, the mind never can reject their association, and resorts for the illustration of its more matured ideas to the rock, and the torrent, and the mountain, with which its childhood had been familiar.

‘ The grand mistake into which our modern critics have fallen, upon the subject of eloquence, has been in subjecting to the same rules the essay composed to be read, and the speech arranged to be delivered. No two things in the world can be more opposite. *What might appear extravagant in the one is chaste in the other*, and the allusion studiously suited to *inflame the delirium of a crowd* must appear wild and rhapsodical in the seclusion of the closet. The scene — the surrounding objects — the materials to be worked — the end to be obtained and the means to be used, are all different. The reader, in the silence of retirement sees nothing but his book, and may pause for observation at the close of every period ; — the hearer, on the contrary, all eye and ear, hurried away by the rapidity of his feelings, and heated by the sympathy of his associates, has no time to criticize the *evanescent* image, which, delighting him at the moment, may owe its whole success to the tone in which it is uttered, or the gesture that accompanies it. The critic, therefore, who analyzes a speech *ought not, in my mind, to require so much a permanent effect as a momentary attainment*. If the object of the orator be answered, his task is ended, and *it can detract nothing from his merit to say he has triumphed by means which the cooler judgment cannot sanction*. His instrument may be the most fantastic or extravagant ; — he may terrify by a phantom, delude by a sophism, or mislead by an airy and unsubstantial meteor : the question is not, were they intimidating, visionary, and delusive, but were they such as might achieve his victory ?’ (Preface, p. 13.)

This is tolerably well : — but we will suspend our quarrel with the taste and style of the passage, in order to proclaim our dissent from doctrines which are as remote from common sense as in their practical operation they would be destructive of sound eloquence. The distinction between written and spoken discourse we consider as false and dangerous. Some difference must indeed always remain in their diction, but merely that which is inevitable in point of correctness and elaboration. This difference, however, is rather to be conceded to the insurmountable necessity of a less polished and accurate phrase, and to the suddenness of the exigency which calls forth the powers of the speaker, than to be urged and enforced as a legitimate rule. He who unites the graces of correct composition with the promptitude of

sudden discourse must be the best speaker. Be this as it may, the end of both kinds is the same:—it is conviction; and to obtain the same end, (allowing for the difference always existing between studied and instantaneous rhetoric,) the same means must conduce. That which is *extravagance* in the one cannot be *chastity* in the other, and bad taste in composition must be bad taste in speaking. The licences which we allow to sudden discourse are those, which are inevitable, of a style somewhat more idiomatic and less finished; and those, which are necessary to its effect, of a greater latitude and a frequent reiteration of topics. They who hear do not always pardon, much less require, a careless or slovenly diction: but the repetition of topics, the wider diffusion and minuter detail of the thought, and the more varied illustration of the same position, are essentially requisite to the impression which the speaker seeks to produce. With these qualifications, however, the same rules are applicable both to writing and speaking.

We protest more strongly against the singular maxim of Mr. Phillips, that permits the orator to triumph by means which his cooler reason cannot sanction. We disclaim also the machinery of his fantastic or extravagant instruments, and confess ourselves to be too unenlightened to recognize the propriety of terrifying by phantoms, or misleading by airy and unsubstantial meteors. The real orator would disdain the ignoble aid of such artifices. He would object to the indiscriminate adoption of means calculated for a particular end, as vehemently on the principles of good taste, as in the schemes and business of life he would object to it, or those of honour and morality. We disavow them, however, on the narrower ground that they do not conduce to the end. To insult the understanding by phantasms and meteors is not to convince it: on the contrary, they put the hearers on their guard against the orator who, according to Mr. Phillips, is always legitimately employed when he misleads and entraps them. They are tricks, too, which produce only a transitory effect. Of Pericles, it was said that he left stings in the minds of his hearers:—whereas these conceits, and metaphors, and epigrams, of which Mr. Phillips sanctions the application and contends for the utility, are the gay but harmless insects that, after having buzzed in our ears for a moment, perish and are forgotten.

Perhaps a more perfect example of impressive eloquence cannot be found than in Mr. Fox. Copious, simple, and impetuous, he seemed to disdain every sort of artifice. His *eloquence* could boast, indeed, of graces to embellish it, but they

they were irradiations which darted from his mind with the awful rapidity of lightning. Nothing was forced; nothing artificial. His was the language of truth, to which nothing but what was true was permitted to minister. His speeches were not, indeed, divided according to any systematic distribution; but each argument was as perfect in its arrangement as if the severest rules of art had been called in to adjust it. He did not triumph by means which his cooler judgment would have disavowed; but, like the antient orator to whom he has been so often likened, who "shook the arsenal and faltered over Greece," judgment was the presiding character of his orations. An anxious and unremitting effort after elevation of style, — the false glitter of metaphor, — the affected points of epigram and antithesis, — these are not to be found in Mr. Fox: but we will venture to affirm that no speaker, antient or modern, reached his end by a less circuitous path, or by means of persuasion more rapid and effective.

In forensic excellence, we have not to look in vain for an example which will supply a decisive refutation to the rhetorical doctrines of Mr. Phillips; though, unfortunately, the present state of the English bar will not allow our allusion to be ambiguous. If, since the period in which Lord Erskine shone as an advocate, Westminster-Hall has been void of equal luminaries, we must assign the deficiency to those mysterious ordinances which award to particular eras only the highest and brightest excellence: — but we do not fear contradiction, when we affirm that his great triumphs were not effected by the arts recommended by Mr. Phillips. Not that this eminent pleader was barren of ornament, for on some occasions he displayed it even to redundancy: but it was always distributed with taste and judgment: it never embarrassed the argument, but kept its due place and subordination; and we will venture to say that nothing even in his most elaborate speeches will appear 'wild and rhapsodical in the closet.' A style licentiously figurative would not be endured by the taste of the English bar: our English juries are obtuse to the jingle of sentences and the glare of metaphor; and the sober and austere gravity of our bench would frown into common sense the puerile and idle extravagance, of which Mr. Phillips seems both the example and the apologist.

We have dwelt at some length on the new aphorisms of this gentleman, from a sincere conviction that they are fatal to a sound and manly eloquence. His exemption of a spoken discourse from the criticism of the closet would

sanction a host of barbarous solecisms and licentious innovations. Speaking is in truth only a more rapid kind of writing. A great master was of this opinion, when, in his beautiful dialogue on oratory, he recommended in the person of Crassus the assiduous cultivation of the art of writing; and he shews that he considers speaking and writing to be subject to the same rules, and to be acquired by the same discipline, in his admirable image of the impulse retained by the vessel after the rowers have ceased. "Writing," he says, "is the best and most efficient master of oratory." * How would he have been startled at the rhetorician who claimed, in behalf of public orators, an emancipation from every established canon of criticism, every law of propriety, and every restraint of taste, while he limited the functions of those who appealed to the senate or the forum to a mere 'momentary attainment?' Had he condescended to refute such a sophism, would he not have summoned all the precepts and principles of his art; which, having their foundation in the constitution of the mind, and being derived from the fountains of nature, conspire to prove that, by the same happy provision, the very means and instruments, by which the orator acquired a temporary success, contributed to a permanent effect; — that the rest was trick and imposture, the husk and shell of rhetoric, and not even subservient to the insecure triumphs of the moment?

When the speeches of Mr. Curran came under our notice, (as before mentioned,) we attempted to deduce the peculiar "*genus dicendi*" which is called the Irish school from what we conceived to be its most effective causes. One feature of it, namely, its ardent and impassioned character, which is the parent of its faults as well as its beauties, we think is deeply laid in the moral character of our nature. The inhabitants of our sister-isle are unquestionably distinguished by a national temperament that is liable to strong and vehement excitations; and quick sensibilities in large communities, as in individuals, increase by frequent indulgence. The political history of Ireland is an affecting but gloomy picture of an ascendancy injudiciously exercised, and indignantly endured: during which, by a systematic course of ill-conceived policy, and its legitimate offspring, vexatious laws and importunate restraints, a wakeful and ardent jealousy of their civil liberties has grown into a constitutional habitude. The empire of force deadens the minds which it subjugates; as if, by some

* "*Stilus optimus et præstantissimus dicendi effector ac magister.*" *Cic. de Orat. l. i. 33.*

unevolent adjustment, Providence had vouchsafed to them a moral lethargy that rendered them oblivious of wrongs, against which remonstrance and resistance would be unavailing and feeble. The domination of bad laws, though incompetent to subdue, is adequate to torment; and thus a restless and fevered sensibility to grievance has been kept alive among our brethren of "the Emerald Isle." Knit together by the consolidating operation of penal severities, a society of resentment has been preserved unbroken and entire for centuries; the sentiment unimpaired and the enthusiasm undiminished at every transmission. Trained in this long conflict as in an arena, they have been disciplined to the habitual demand of rights, from the full participation of which they feel themselves excluded: till, by a necessary process, the sense of wrong has arrived at such a morbid irritation, that the real grievance is enlarged beyond its just and natural proportions. Every thing then appears exaggerated to their vision, and their diction struggles to swell to the dimensions of their feeling and their conception. The subjects on which the ablest pens and most eloquent tongues are constantly exercised are no longer problems of disputation, to the solution of which reason ascends by slow and considerate advances: they are *emotions*, which are felt; and it is the communication of these emotions that imparts to their language an ardor and elevation which sometimes extend beyond the strict exigency of the occasion. Rhetorical landishments, imagery, allusions, antithesis, point, — these, consequently, are adopted in order to convey the sentiment to others with vehemence equal to that with which it glows in the bosom whence it proceeds.

We venture with some diffidence, however, to suggest this as one only of the causes which have conspired to produce a national eloquence in Ireland, and which we think has not been wholly inoperative in the formation of the Irish character itself. As to the apology of Mr. Phillips for the eloquence of his native land, we scarcely imagine that his countrymen will be very grateful for the indulgence for which he sues in their behalf. Living in an age abounding with all the refinements of taste and erudition, they would disdain, we conceive, the forgiveness which is claimed for them, as 'speaking the first language of a nation's infancy,' and 'the vocabulary of nature:' which might with more propriety have been awarded to the speech of an American chieftain, of whose eloquence 'the rock, the torrent, and the mountain' are almost the only text-books. Is it thus that the eloquence of enlightened Irishmen is to be defended?

To the Irish school we have already conceded Mr. Burke; and, if any doubts be entertained of the correctness of such a classification, certain it is that the imagery so profusely scattered by the present "Irish orator" derives some authority from the speeches and writings of that eminent master. As, however, it must be the eternal destiny of those, who aspire to be his disciples, to be thrown to an immeasurable distance from their prototype, we protest against any of the inferences which may be derived from our concession, to sanction the licentious and unrestrained extravagancies of the modern school. The affinity may be traced, but the resemblance may be faint. If Mr. Burke scattered around him a profusion of figure and imagery, it was the profusion of an exhausted opulence, not the prodigality of ostentatious penury. Yet they who have the most diligently perused his works, amid all the diversities of decoration that sparkle about them, will not often find an instance of an incongruous figure, or a false metaphor; rocks on which they who attempt to be figurative are perpetually splitting. Nor is it saying too much when we assert that, with all his exuberance, and the restlessness of an imagination which, habituated to revel in the world of its own visions, could scarcely refrain, even on common topics of reasoning or discourse, from ascending to the "highest heaven of invention" to illustrate them; — that, with all this, the argument never seems to be overlaid by the diction. If we try the experiment, and cut off a decoration from Mr. Burke, we shall weaken the argument. It is in vain, however, to analyze the character of an author who, while we are considering him under one form or mode of composition, presents himself to us in another. No writer is so various; and his varieties are those of each particular piece relatively to itself, and of his works in general compared to each other. As to the first, every speech or dissertation is compounded of materials collected from every specimen of our English language; and it is the skill by which these diversities are harmonized and managed, so as to melt into each other like the colours of the rainbow, that bespeaks the sovereignty of his genius. It is a mysterious contexture, where nothing is ill-assorted, but all is kept together and combined by that controuling taste, to the principles of which he had been taught by early habits of investigation to defer. He has still a higher charm. In every page, the wisdom of ages is interwoven; and all that pertains to moral and social man is dealt out in sententious aphorisms, (*γνώμαι*,) or illustrated by the most beautiful amplifications, so as to render his works, taken together as a whole, almost a repository

repertory of ethical and civil wisdom. We say nothing concerning the various kinds of his writings. Our readers need not be reminded of the different departments in which he was exercised:—taste, criticism, controversial politics, history, statistics, and political economy.

We have been tempted into this course of remark by our zeal for the memory of a great man, who has exalted the tennary name of Great Britain; and by our anxiety, lest so splendid an example should be drawn into a precedent and polegy for the modern school of Irish rhetoric. Let us now return to the work before us, which exhibits specimens of eight orators; all, according to Mr. Phillips, of the same school, viz. Burke, Carran, Grattan, Sheridan, Burroughes, Burke, Plunket, and Flood. Happily, this very catalogue furnishes us with specimens of beautiful simplicity and chaste vigor, that form a striking contrast to that appropriate manner which, according to our notions, belongs to *Irish eloquence*. We begin with an extract from Mr. Plunket's celebrated speech on the Catholic question in 1813. Those who remember that speech can testify that its effect was irresistible, and that they felt it to be a splendid specimen of chaste yet impassioned oratory. Its reasonings are closely compacted; its decorations are the most appropriate; and its positions, with all their limitations, are most clearly and accurately defined. After having adverted to the articles of Limerick, he thus pursues the subject. It is obvious, however, that a mere extract can give but an inadequate idea of the speech.

“These victims of mistaken loyalty, when they were about to save their native land,” (the garrison who had stipulated to serve broad, and to be conveyed accordingly,) “and with the characteristic generosity and improvidence of their country to commit themselves, with the fortunes of a banished monarch, stipulated not for themselves but for the country, they were about to leave for ever; and the parliament by a cruel mockery enacted, not for the country but for them, that they should not lose the privileges of—what? of being barristers-at-law, clerks in Chancery, attornies, practitioners of law and physic, but that they might freely use the name!”

“Why, Sir, do I mention these historical facts? Not for the purpose of raking up the embers of antient animosities, but for the purpose of shewing, that in restoring the privileges of the Catholics, we are performing an act of justice and vindicating the revolution from the stain of this act of perfidy. Men, who have forgotten every circumstance of that great event which connects it with the cause of civil and religious freedom, affect to call this reach of faith and honour one of the sacred principles of our constitution. It is a miserable perversion of understanding which can forget every thing sacred and animating in that glorious struggle; which can fling away as dross the precious attestation, which it

it bears to the just rights of the people ; which would bury in eternal oblivion the awful lesson which it has taught to their rulers ; but consecrates and embalms this single act of injustice, which disgraces it.

“ Sir, I am satisfied, that the illustrious persons who perfected the Revolution, were not aware of the injustice done to Ireland. In the crowded events of that day, the stipulations might not have been fully known, and there have been at all times a set of slaves ready in this country to defame and defraud their native land, to traffic on the calamities of their countrymen. I will go farther, and suppose that the severe necessity of the times may have made it impossible to avoid an act of injustice. But I will not, therefore, confound the deviation with the rule. I cannot trample on the principle, and worship the exception. It might as well be said that to restore the Danish fleet would be a violation of the laws of nature and of nations, because a deplorable necessity had compelled us to violate these laws by seizing it. I have, perhaps, dwelt too long on this part of the subject : but I felt anxious to meet the cry of this great charter of our freedom being at variance with the rights of the people. The great men of that day had deeply studied the laws and constitution of their country. With ardent feelings and sublime conceptions, they made no unnecessary breach on any antient usage ; no wanton incroachment of any rights of people or of king ; not like our modern improvers, who hold for nothing the wisdom which has gone before them, and set up their own crude conceptions with an utter contempt for all the sacred lore of their ancestors. They committed no rude outrage on those who had gone before them. They entailed no odious bondage on those who were to succeed them. With the modesty and simplicity which characterise great minds, they declared the essential rights of the constitution. They saw that the system of the reformation would be incomplete unless the king, who was the temporal head of the church, should be in communion with that church ; they therefore enacted, that he should hold his crown only while he adhered to his religion. They declared the throne unalterably Protestant, they declared the religion of the state unalterably Protestant, and having thus laid the firm foundation of civil and religious freedom, they left all other considerations open to the progress of time and the wisdom of posterity.

“ That time has come, and that posterity is now called upon to decide. We are fighting the same battle in which the illustrious deliverer of these countries was engaged. We are defending the liberties of Europe and of the world against the same unchangeable and insatiable ambition which then assailed them. We are engaged with an enemy far more formidable than Louis XIV., whether we consider the vastness of his plans, the consummateness of his skill, his exhaustless resources, or his remorseless application of them. But if our dangers are aggravated, our means of safety are increased. William III. was obliged to watch with a jealous eye the movements of one-half of his subjects, whilst he employed the energies of the other. We have it in our power to unite them all, by one great act of national justice. If we do not
wantonly

wantonly and obstinately fling away the means, which God's providence has placed within our grasp, we may bring the energies of all our people with one hand and heart to strike against the common enemy."

We will now exhibit a specimen of what we consider as a much nearer approximation to the Irish school. Let us hear Mr. Grattan, speaking on tithes demanded from the Catholic.

"Is not the question directly put to them" (the Protestant clergy) "which will they prefer? their flock or their riches? For which did Christ die, or the Apostles suffer martyrdom, or Paul preach, or Luther protest? Was it for the tithe of flax, or the tithe of barren land, or the tithe of potatoes, or the tithe-proctor, or the tithe-farmer, or the tithe-pig? Your riches are secure; but if they were impaired by your acts of benevolence, does our religion depend on your riches? On such a principle your Saviour should have accepted of the kingdoms of the earth, and their glory, and have capitulated with the devil for the propagation of the faith. Never was a great principle rendered prevalent by power or riches; low and artificial means are resorted to for the fulfilling the little views of men, their love of power, their avarice, or ambition; but to apply to the great design of God such wretched auxiliaries, is to forget his divinity, and to deny his omnipotence. What! does the word come more powerfully from a dignitary in purple and fine linen, than it came from the poor Apostle with nothing but the spirit of the Lord on his lips, and the glory of God standing on his right hand? What! my lords, not cultivate barren land; not encourage the manufactures of your country; not relieve the poor of your flock if the church is to be at any expence thereby? — Where shall we find this principle? Not in the Bible. I have adverted to the sacred writings, without criticism, I allow; but not without devotion: — there is not in any part of them such a sentiment — not in the purity of Christ, nor the poverty of the Apostles, nor the prophecy of Isaiah, nor the patience of Job, nor the harp of David, nor the wisdom of Solomon! No, my lords, on this subject your Bible is against you — the precepts and practice of the Primitive church against you — the great words *increase and multiply* — the axiom of philosophy, that nature does nothing in vain — the productive principle that formed the system and defends it against the ambition and encroachments of its own elements; the reproductive principle, which continues the system, and which makes vegetation support life, and life administer back again to vegetation; taking from the grave its sterile quality, and making death itself propagate to life and succession — the plenitude of things and the majesty of nature through all her organs — manifest against such a sentiment; this blind fatality of error, which under pretence of defending the wealth of the priesthood, checks the growth of mankind, arrests his industry, and makes the sterility of the planet a part of its religion."

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We are not insensible to the extraordinary gifts of this venerable statesman. "*Haud obtusa adeo gestamus pettorum*." The splendid efforts of a life protracted for the benefit of his species, for the noble cause of civil and religious freedom, and for the honour and happiness of his country, would restrain the petulance of criticism: but the epigrammatic and sententious style, to which he has addicted himself, has had, when transferred into feebler hands, no slight share in the production of those vices which so strongly characterize the modern school of Irish eloquence.

Our readers must not lose the powerful description of the Informer, from a speech of Mr. Curran:

"I speak not now of the fate of those horrid wretches who have been so often transferred from the table to the dock, and from the dock to the pillory. I speak of what your own eyes have seen day after day from the box where you are now sitting; the number of horrid miscreants who avowed upon their oaths that they had come from the very seat of government;—from the Castle, where they had been worked upon by the fear of death and the hopes of compensation, to give evidence against their fellows, that the mild and wholesome councils of this government are holden over these catacombs of living death, where the wretch that is buried a man, lies till his heart has time to fester and dissolve, and is then dug up a witness.

"Is this fancy, or is it a fact? Have you not seen him, after his resurrection from that tomb, after having been dug out of the region of death and corruption, make his appearance upon the table, the living image of life and of death, and the supreme arbiter of both? Have you not marked, when he entered, how the stormy wave of the multitude retired at his approach? Have you not marked how the human heart bowed to the supremacy of his power, in the undissembled homage of deferential horror? How his glance, like the lightning of heaven, seemed to rive the body of the accused, and mark it for the grave, while his voice warned the devoted wretch of woe and death;—a death, which no innocence can escape, no art elude, no force resist, no antidote prevent. There was an antidote, a juror's oath; but even that adamant chain, that bound the integrity of man to the throne of eternal justice, is solved and melted in the breath that issues from the informer's mouth. Conscience swings from her moorings, and the appalled and affrighted juror consults his own safety in the surrender of the victim.

*Et quæ sibi quisque timebat, —
Unius in miseri exitium conversa tulere."*

We cite these as examples of the Irish manner, but as pertaining, at the same time, to its higher class. We add a peroration from a celebrated speech of Mr. Flood, which strongly reminds us of the impetuous and rapid fire of the elder

elder Pitt, and which exhibits a striking contrast both to Grattan and Curran. It is not unlike the *novissima verba* of the dying Chatham.

In ability, I will yield to many; in zeal to none; and if I have not served the public cause more than many then, this at least I may say, I have sacrificed as much to it. Do you repent of that sacrifice? If I am asked, I answer, No. Who could repent of a sacrifice to truth and honour, to a country that he loves, and to a country that is grateful? Do you repent of it? No. But I should not rejoice in it, if it were only to be attended with a private deprivation, and not to be accompanied by all its gains to my country. I have a peculiar right, therefore, to be solicitous and ardent about the issue of it, and no man shall stop me in my progress.

Were the voice, with which I utter this, the last effort of an expiring nature; were the accent which conveys it to you, the breath that was to waft me to that grave to which we all tend, and to which my footsteps rapidly accelerate, I would go on. I would make my exit by a loud demand of your rights, and I call upon the God of truth and liberty, who has so often favoured me, and who has of late looked down upon you with such a peculiar grace and glory of protection, to continue to you his inspiration, to crown you with the spirit of his completion, and to assist you against the errors of those that are honest, as well as against the machinations of all that are not so."

Our boundaries will not allow us any farther extracts: but the observations which we have offered are sufficiently supported, as we trust, by the citations already made to illustrate them. The health and sanity of our genuine diction cannot be foreign to us; and we have been solicitous to impress, on the minds of all who seek the praise of English eloquence, not only the fallacy of Mr. Phillips's precepts, but the errors into which the brightest intellects of Ireland have glided by giving an unlimited range to a vigorous and excursive imagination. Even their beauties, when imitated by inferior minds, become tasteless and absurd: the spirit has evaporated; and the redundancy of phrase and the confused mass of imagery alone remain. These qualities cannot constitute eloquence, in which the thought must have room to breathe, instead of being overwhelmed by the weight of ornamental diction. Nor is it unseasonable to remind the most eminent speakers of the perils which they entail on our national tongue, by departing from its antient simplicity and its genuine vigor; because such great examples stand in the place of precepts, and one specimen of corrupt eloquence does more harm than is effected when absurdity is inculcated by lessons, and nonsense taught by

by lectures. "*Vim intelligo esse in præceptis omnibus, non ut ea secuti oratores eloquentiæ laudem sint adepti; sed quæ suâ sponte homines eloquentes facerent, ea quosdam observasse, atque id egisse: sic esse non eloquentiam ex artificio sed artificium ex eloquentiâ natum.*"

Having already given our opinion as to the inutility of this publication, we have yet to make a serious complaint against its execution. The title-page holds out a promise of biographical notices: but they are jejune, and even incorrect. For instance, in replying to an objection that Mr. Burke ought not to be classed in the Irish school because England was the place of his residence during the greater portion of his life, and the great theatre of his fame during the vigor of his genius, the editor tells us that 'Burke was twenty-three years old before he left his native land, and regularly visited it once a year for forty years after.' P. 10. We have ascertained, however, from one of his most intimate associates, that sometimes several years elapsed without these occasional journeys to Ireland; and he himself says in a letter to Mr. Fox on the affairs of that country, dated in October, 1777, "It is now within a few days of eleven years since I visited Ireland, and then after an absence of two." * Of some of the speeches of Mr. Burke and Mr. Sheridan, parts of which the editor has extracted, he seems to have consulted only the mere news-paper reports of the day: at least, it is not possible to account in any other way for the confused and undigested mass of words which is put into the mouth of the latter on the topic of filial piety, which we remember was a highly admired passage in one of his speeches on the trial of Mr. Hastings, in Westminster-Hall. — "It fires emotion into vital principle — renders habituated instinct into a master-passion — sways the sweetest energies of man — hangs over each vicissitude of all that must pass away — aids the melancholy virtues in their last sad tasks to cheer the languors of decrepitude and age — explores the thought — elucidates the asking eye." — A school-boy would have known that Mr. Sheridan was quoting two beautiful lines from Pope:

"Explore the thought, explain the asking eye,
And keep awhile one parent from the sky."

* Burke's Works, vol. v. 4to.

ART. II. *A Review of the Domestic Fisheries of Great Britain and Ireland*; by Robert Fraser, Esq. 4to. pp. 302. 18s. Boards. Nicol and Son, &c.

THE return of peace has repeatedly been the season for resuming legislative measures in favour of our fisheries, as the means both of increasing the national supply of provisions and of affording employment to the great number of seamen who are discharged at the termination of a war. This was more particularly the case after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle; when a grand association, with a capital of 100,000l., was formed, and attempts were made on a large scale to rival the Dutch in their mode of curing fish for exportation: but the unexpected death of Frederick, Prince of Wales, who was the patron of this society, and still more the short duration of peace, put a stop to these sanguine calculations. They were but partially renewed after the peace of 1763, our capital and activity finding sufficient employment in our colonial possessions: but, when the peace of 1783 left us apparently confined to our own resources, the patronage of government and the exertion of individuals were once more directed to the treasures of the deep. Considerable progress had been made at Yarmouth, Leith, and several other ports, in extending our fisheries, when the war of 1793 again called away our seamen and absorbed our disposable capital. The peace of 1802 was too transient to afford time for such combinations: but since 1815 they have been resumed with vigour, and under better auspices than at any period for a century past.

Mr. Fraser's publication being the latest, and in fact the only considerable tract that has appeared for some time on our fisheries, we shall devote to it several pages of our work, on account of the interest of the subject, and because the volume itself is put together in so confused a manner that an analysis, however brief, cannot fail to be useful. Amid the various topics crowded into it, we are enabled to distinguish two comprehensive heads; first, the 'extension of the present British fisheries;' and, secondly, the 'formation of new fisheries along the coast of Ireland, particularly on the Nymph Bank.' These divisions we shall adopt as the titles of our abstract and remarks.

Historical Sketch of the British Fisheries. — In treating of fisheries, every writer is naturally led to fix his attention on the Dutch; who, more than any other nation, have evinced the possibility of acquiring a splendid triumph over the difficulties of their natural position. It is said to have been

about the year 1400 that this people, who had already become active navigators, adopted an improved plan of salting herrings; and the fishery increased in progress of time so much as to afford not only a large supply of food at a small expence, but to enable them to send vast quantities to their neighbours. The introduction of the Reformation into Holland lessened the home-consumption of fish, by relieving all Protestants from the absurd restrictions on diet on particular days: but their French and Belgic neighbours continued staunch Catholics, and the extension of the Dutch shipments to the south of Europe soon rendered the market so wide as to employ 1000 vessels. In 1618, as Sir Walter Raleigh asserts, that number was greatly increased, and it was to the magnitude of their fisheries that the Hollanders owed their great naval strength. A witness of higher authority, we mean the unfortunate De Witt, in his well-known work printed in 1669 on the Political Maxims of Holland, computes that of 2,400,000, the total population of the United Provinces, above a fifth were maintained by the fisheries. Dr. Worley, secretary to the Board of Trade in the reign of Charles II., stated that the annual value of the herrings caught by the Dutch was fully 3,000,000*l.* sterling; and that the number of busses or small vessels employed in that fishery was at least 1600. So dexterous, he adds, were their seamen, and so powerful their merchants in capital and connection, that it would, in his opinion, be in vain for the English to enter the list of competition with them, unless a plan were devised by our government which should give them some decided advantage from the outset. These propositions, dictated in part by a political jealousy of the Dutch, led to the acts of 1673 and 1674 for the encouragement of our fisheries: but a different course was held after 1688, when the accession of William and the dread of the power of France formed a close connection between us and Holland, and forbade us to attempt any mercantile enterprize which was calculated to injure so useful an ally.

Such was our policy for more than half a century; and it was not until after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, that government undertook to patronize our fisheries on an extensive scale. An act, evidently formed on those of 1673 and 1674, was then passed for incorporating a number of persons into an association, enabling them to raise a capital of 500,000*l.*; and granting a bounty of 4*l.* per ton on every vessel so employed: to which were added other advantages, that seemed to put the new association on the most favoured footing. The design was to carry on the fishing in deep water,
in

in order to increase our nursery for seamen, and to supply the foreign market with fish. It was objected in parliament that a joint-stock-company could ill compete with the unwearied industry and rigid economy of the private merchants of Holland; and that it was wholly inexpedient to fit out our vessels from the port of London, where the price of labour was higher than in the rest of the kingdom: but government carried the bill through the House, and Dutchmen were brought over to instruct our countrymen in the mode of curing white herrings. Still, this great undertaking did not succeed; nor does there, says Mr. Fraser, appear to have been more than the insignificant number of eight vessels fitted out in any year. The war of 1756 put a stop to the whole, and our increase of colonial acquisitions in the West Indies and America occupied the capital and enterprize of our merchants, both during the hostilities and after the peace of 1763. Next came the unfortunate contest with our colonies; which, productive as it was of a rupture with France and Spain, suspended our fisheries; and it was not till after 1783 that the attention of government and of individuals was seriously recalled to this great national object.

Bounties. — In considering the principal acts of parliament passed during the last seventy years in aid of our fisheries, we shall find that the bounty granted in 1750 was liable to various objections. It consisted, chiefly, of an allowance of 4l. per ton on every buss or fishing vessel fitted out in the terms of the act, however insignificant might be its success: the result led to a saying which has been recorded by Dr. Smith in his treatise on the Wealth of Nations, that the busses were often sent out to catch not the fish but the bounty; and in one year the quantity taken was so trifling that each barrel of herrings cost government 159l. These absurd provisions were amended in 1787, when the bounty, as reckoned by the tonnage, was greatly reduced, but increased on the quantity caught, to the amount of 4s. the barrel. This regulation led to much greater exertion in the fishing; and, in the ten years which followed, the average number of busses or fishing-vessels employed was 300: their crews consisted of 3436 men: the average quantity of herrings was 54,000 barrels; and the average bounty annually paid amounted to the sum of 20,600l. A bounty of 2s. per barrel was granted in 1795 to boats and vessels fitted out so as not to claim the tonnage bounty, and the result was a considerable increase in the quantity caught. In 1808 was passed a farther act, which in 1815 was declared perpetual, raising the bounty from 2s. to 4s. per barrel on all herrings cured

cured and gutted agreeably to the printed instructions. Under this act, our herring-fishery has recovered considerably from its depression: but it will be in vain to expect complete success to our fisheries, particularly those on our own coast, until the total repeal of the duty on salt. "A fisherman, or cottager," said Sir T. Bernard, "has no means of providing a store-house fit for the approval of the excise officer; nor can he dry-salt or barrel his fish with the precise quantity required: he should be left free to purchase at the nearest shop whatever salt is necessary, and to make such use of it as he thinks proper."

Salt. — We have already had occasion to draw the attention of our readers to the importance of the extended use of salt, in our notice (M. R. June, 1817,) of a valuable tract by the benevolent Baronet just quoted, "on the Means of supporting the labouring Classes;" and it is gratifying to think that, in a season when we at last breathe from the pressure of war, the efforts of parliament have been directed to this important subject. Mr. Fraser has subjoined to his work the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons in May, 1817; from which it appears that the mines of rock-salt in Cheshire might produce annually 600,000 tons, but that the quantity actually extracted is only 240,000 tons. The capital vested in the works is about 700,000*l.* The persons employed, including women and children, are about 2400. Salt is exported duty-free; the quantity sent abroad is about 120,000 tons. Required for the fisheries, and which also is duty-free, 30,000 tons. Sent to Ireland and the Isle of Man, 30,000 tons.

The price of rock-salt is only 12*s.* per ton at the rocks: it is there mixed with the brine from the saline springs, and refined in large iron pans; after which it is called white salt, and is sold, the inferior at 23*s.* the best from 35*s.* to 40*s.* per ton. On salt for home-consumption there is the enormous duty of 15*s.* per bushel of 56 lbs., nearly twenty times the value of the article: — a duty, moreover, not difficult of collection, the mines and manufactures of salt being confined to particular districts, and smuggling being easily prevented. This circumstance happily facilitates the permission to use rock-salt in our fisheries, manufactories, and agriculture, without any great risk of fraud on the revenue; and it is to this fortunate coincidence that we are to attribute the progress already made by the act of 27th June, 1817, by which salt, free of duty, may be used not only in curing fish but in making mineral alkali. Still this is but a partial attainment of the objects pointed out by Sir T. Bernard, and will,

will, we trust, be followed by a definitive abolition of the salt-duties: in which case, our fisheries, we are assured, would stand in no need of bounties. *

Distinction between the Coast and Deep Sea Fishery.—

The patronage of the legislature was formerly confined to busses, or vessels engaged in the distant or deep-sea fishery, on the calculation that such a mode of fishing alone was conducive to the training of seamen. The vessels so employed were from 80 to 100 tons burden, and the cost of each, with its out-fit, was about 1000*l*. After having passed Shetland, they proceeded to the northward, sometimes even until they reached the ice; where they took the earliest herrings, and are said to have found them more full of flesh and fitter for curing. A bounty of 3*l*. per ton on shipping so employed was granted in 1808, and is still continued: yet it has led to the equipment of very few vessels; the adventurers preferring to fish along the coast, and to take their chance of the bounty by the barrel. The coast-fishery is performed in boats or small vessels; and the apportionment of the bounty to the quantity caught, without limitation of the manner of doing it, is certainly most consonant to the true laws of productive industry. It appears, indeed, that the boat-fishery was considerable in former ages, when wholly unaided by bounty, and that it declined on the impolitic grant of 1750 to the larger vessels; as if the legislature were doomed never to interfere with the natural course of trade without in some way or other creating loss and disappointment.

Ireland, and the Nymph Bank Fishery.—Mr. Fraser, although he is not a native of the sister-island, takes a warm part in all that regards her prosperity, and dedicates the concluding section of his work to topics connected with her improvement. He enumerates the situations fit for new harbours, the evils consequent on the exaction of the duty on salt, and the much greater benefit that would result from

* The pernicious effect of the salt-duties is strikingly illustrated by the following fact:—"In preparing salt from the brine, a considerable refuse is left, which is cleared out from the pans and thrown on the ground. Before 1805 this refuse was sold to the farmers at 25*s*. per ton, one half of the money going to the owner of the salt-work, and the other half as duty to government. The annual sale of this refuse in the neighbourhood of Nantwich (in Cheshire) was 120,000 bushels, and the adjacent country was much benefited by it: but, after the enormous addition to the duty in 1805, it was judged unsafe to allow this refuse to go out of the hands of the excise officer, and the whole was regularly thrown into the river."—Sir T. Bernard.

advancing the public money for fishing stations than for inland navigation. So long ago as 1800, he was employed by government, in Ireland, in a situation that enabled him to acquire official information concerning the agriculture and fisheries of several maritime counties. In the course of these investigations, he found that a discovery of the first importance, viz. the practicability of establishing a great fishery on the Nymph bank, (a shoal of large extent, running parallel to the shores of the counties of Cork and Waterford,) had been made nearly a century ago, and a proposal submitted in 1736 for supplying London, Bristol, Liverpool, and other towns, with fish caught on this extensive deposit, and carried fresh to market in well-boats; that is, in vessels of which the lower part admits the ingress and egress of salt-water, to keep the fish alive. The war of 1739 prevented this interesting project from being carried into effect at the time; and, after the peace of 1748, the failure of the grand scheme for the extension of our fisheries cast a general discouragement on such propositions. The consequence was that the value of this bank as a fishing ground remained unknown to government until 1801; when Mr. F. repeated with success the experiments of 1736; and, peace taking place with France, a limited sum of public money was granted for the prosecution of his plan.

The Nymph bank fishery seemed now in a fair train, and Mr. F. proposed that it should take place by a fleet of well-boats; dispatching from time to time one of the number to London with the quantity caught by the whole, and thus relieving each boat from the fish which she had on board. The next step was to form at Waterford a company or association of partners and managers: but here, from party-animosity or other causes, a miserable want of concert occurred; and discredit would have been cast on the whole enterprize, had not Mr. F. put himself on board one of these humble barks, discovered a spot for collecting the proper bait for the fishery, and carried an ample supply of live fish to Billingsgate market. This successful experiment was a conclusive answer to discouraging predictions, and excited the attention of the Marine Society of London; an institution supported by the subscription of public spirited individuals for the purpose of placing friendless boys under their protection, and bringing them up to a sea-life. That Society took up the idea with spirit, and applied to parliament for leave to raise 50,000*l.* by subscription to carry on the fishery: their wish was seconded by a number of enlightened men; and a future age will hardly credit that the inhabitants of

Harwich, Gravesend, and Feversham, who regarded the supply of London as their inheritance, succeeded in mustering a body of parliamentary opponents sufficient to throw out the bill. Government declining to interfere, the war coming on, and the association at Waterford conducting their concerns in a ridiculous manner, the Nymph bank fishery was relinquished, and has not since been resumed: but it is destined, we hope, to attract the attention of those who now occupy themselves with the improvement of Ireland.

We have thus laid before our readers the most interesting facts in Mr. F.'s publication. With regard to his qualities as a writer, we have to regret, as in the case of Mr. Wakefield, the laborious compiler of "a Statistical Account of Ireland," (M. R. vol. lxxi.) that a display of reading has been attempted when nothing was so desirable as brevity and simplicity. Of what advantage can it be to those who consult a tract on our fisheries, to have (pp. 132, *et seq.*) an historical essay on the practice of numbering the people from the days of King David; or an abstract (p. 138.) of Mr. Malthus's principles of population; or (p. 140.) of Mr. Barrow's remarks on the state of China? All this has swelled the volume to a fatiguing length. Another and a great defect, as it regards both perspicuity and interest, is its want of arrangement; many subordinate details being incorporated in the text, instead of being consigned to the appendix, and the same matter, however tedious, being occasionally recapitulated in nearly the same words. A copious table of contents is prefixed, and a still more copious index is added: but even these useful auxiliaries do not remedy the inherent deficiencies of the text. — The documents given in the appendix relate to the fishery on the Nymph bank; the herring fishery on the coast of Ireland generally; the fishery on the west coast of Scotland; proceedings of the "Society for extending our Fisheries" established in 1786; and report of the parliamentary committee on rock-salt in 1817.

ART. III. *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of George Buchanan*. By David Irving, LL.D. The Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 454-148. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THIS book is possessed of attractions both for the admirers of the classical historian of Scotland, and for readers who are interested in the biography of the *literati* of the 16th century; Buchanan having passed a great part of his life on the Continent, and having been connected by correspondence or otherwise with almost every eminent man of letters in that

age. He left a short but valuable memoir of his life, written in Latin with his accustomed elegance, from which it appears that he was born in the year 1506, in the county of Stirling, of an antient but far from affluent family. Scotland being at that time closely allied with France, he was sent to Paris to study; and, although his stay in that metropolis was not at first of great duration, his acquisition of the language, and his satisfaction with the manners of the inhabitants, (*summa gentis humanitas*) made him always look on France with predilection, and fly to it as a refuge in his subsequent vexations. After having finished his studies, he supported himself for several years by acting as tutor first to the young Earl of Cassilis, and next to the natural son of James V. of Scotland. This introduction at court, apparently so advantageous, was in a great degree the cause of his future embarrassments; the king having stimulated him to write a satirical poem against the Franciscan monks, which was too able and too poignant to be ever forgiven by the offended ecclesiastics. Buchanan was now denounced as a Lutheran or heretic, and obliged to seek refuge first in England and afterward in France, whither he repaired in 1539.

Having passed several years as classical teacher at Bordeaux and Paris, Buchanan accepted an invitation to proceed with other distinguished scholars to the new university of Coimbra in Portugal, in the hope of enjoying an undisturbed command of time in the only corner of Europe that was exempt from foreign or civil war. These prospects, however, were not realized: his satires against the Catholic clergy having become known, and exposed him in that bigoted country to confinement in a monastery, where he began his admirable translation of the Psalms. Leaving Portugal in 1553, he returned to France soon after the repulse of the great army of the Emperor Charles V. before Metz by the Duke of Guise, and was required to write a poem on that memorable event. From France he passed into the north of Italy, where he remained till 1560; giving his time chiefly to theological studies, in order that he might form a clearer judgment of the great controversies which had divided the attention of Europe since the appearance of Luther. Scotland having now attained comparative tranquillity, and the reformed faith having triumphed over a formidable opposition, Buchanan returned thither, published portions of his early writings, and was at last placed in easy circumstances, being appointed classical tutor or rather reader to Queen Mary, and named to two appointments which were in the gift of the crown.

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He had now passed his fiftieth year, and is no longer to be considered in the light of a wanderer, being from this time stationary in Scotland, and enjoying the intimacy of the first persons of the country. He proceeded to publish his translation of the Psalms, and to make considerable additions to his satirical works against the monks and the absurdities of their doctrine: the titles of which productions were *Fratres Fraterrimi, Elegiæ, Silvæ, Hendecasyllabi*. His farther occupations were partly clerical (although a layman) and partly political. He accompanied the Regent of Scotland and other persons of rank, who repaired to England in 1568 at the invitation of Elizabeth, to confer with English delegates respecting the conduct and situation of Mary of Scotland; and he took perhaps too decided a part against the prisoner by publishing a *Detectio* or exposure of her misconduct; which was not only submitted to the delegates but circulated assiduously throughout the kingdom. These acts, and the not less grievous charges against Mary in his historical work, form, in the judgment of many, a great stain on the character of Buchanan; indebted, as he in some measure was, to the Queen, and connected with her in former years as superintendant of her studies: but, in the interval that had elapsed, Mary had, in his opinion, been guilty of the most improper conduct; and an impartial examination of Buchanan's character and motives will lead us to ascribe his vehemence much less to political calculation, than to the effect of conviction on a mind that was always ardent and sometimes acrimonious. That such was the temper of this distinguished scholar is apparent both from the troubled nature of his life, and from the report of contemporary writers: "*Erat austero supercilio et toto corporis habitu subagrestis: sed stylo et sermone perurbanus, quam sæpissime, vel in seriis, multo cum sale jocaretur.*" 'He was subject,' adds Dr. Irving, 'to the nice and irritable feelings which frequently attend exalted genius, enthusiastic in his attachment, and violent in his resentment, equally sincere in his love and in his hatred.'

In 1570, Buchanan was appointed keeper of the privy-seal of Scotland, and intrusted with the superintendence of the education of the young prince, afterward James I. of England. Literature, however, was still his favourite pursuit; he took a part in improving the grammars for the use of the schools of Scotland, and in reforming the universities; and he composed a well known treatise of political philosophy, published under the title of *De jure Regni apud Scotos*; a work of greater compass than its name implies, and embracing many general maxims of government. Finally, he prepared

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the greatest of his literary labours,—his *History of Scotland*, in Latin.

‘ His sketch of the earlier reigns is brief and rapid; nor has he attempted to establish any chronological notation till he descends to the four hundred and fourth year of the Christian æra. It must indeed be acknowledged that he has repeated the fabulous line of our ancient kings; but that continued till a much later period to be regarded as an article of national faith. The erudition and judgment of Lloyd and Stillingfleet, of Innes and Pinkerton, had not then been applied to the intricate investigation. Like most of the classical historians, Buchanan is too remiss in marking the chronology of the different facts which he records. His narrative, from the reign of the great King Robert (1300), becomes much more copious and interesting; but the history of his own times, which were pregnant with remarkable events, occupies far the largest proportion of his twenty books. In some of the transactions which he relates, his own affections and passions were deeply concerned, and might not unreasonably be expected to impart some tincture to his style. “ His bitterness in writing of the Queen,” says Archbishop Spotswood, “ and troubles of the time, all wise men have disliked. But otherwise no man did merit better of his nation for learning, nor thereby did bring to it more glory.” This is the remark of a candid and enlightened man, who enjoyed the particular favour of the Queen’s son and grandson: he has not, however, hazarded the slightest insinuation of Buchanan’s having asserted what he did not himself believe.’

Buchanan was on his death-bed when the latter part of his history was passing through the press; and, on several of his friends expostulating with him (p. 304.) on the severity of the passages against Queen Mary, he insisted on their remaining, and challenged the objectors to say whether he had not told the truth: there is consequently no foundation for the retraction so fondly believed by the admirers of that unfortunate princess. His death took place at the age of seventy-seven, in the year 1582, when Scotland had at last attained both tranquillity at home, and the prospect of a political union with her southern neighbour. His great misfortune was to live in a rude and unsettled age: had his lot been cast in better times, a man of his talents would have been spared the drudgery of teaching, and the hardship of such frequent changes of residence: — but, on the other hand, from his having led a life of celibacy, and from practising private more than public tuition, he possessed considerable command of time, and was enabled, amid all his vexations, to prepare those works which have proved to him monuments of permanent reputation.

Dr. Irving’s composition has no pretensions to elegance, but is a copious repository of biographical materials, contain-
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ing a number of Buchanan's minor poetic effusions introduced into the text in the succession of their dates, with appropriate illustrations; also a variety of anecdotes relative to Scaliger, Turnebus, Beza, Serranus, and other literati of the sixteenth century. Its chief fault is the quaintness of its phraseology, the author having no scruple to use such expressions as (p. 316.) 'intoleration' for intolerance; a 'variegated' for a diversified 'life;' and (p. 164.) an 'opaque' for a slow 'understanding.' The second edition contains several useful additions, but the want of a table of contents is ill supplied by an index which is merely a list of names.

In the Appendix, are several of Buchanan's smaller compositions, written chiefly in the current language of the age; and here the vulgarity of the Scotch dialect forms so curious a contrast to the elegance of his Latin, that the reader is at first doubtful whether they can be the production of the same pen. The country-gentlemen, of the part of Scotland in which Buchanan was born, erected, several years ago, an elegant monument to his memory;—an obelisk of above one hundred feet in height. The present work contains his portrait, taken at an advanced age; also *fac-similes* of his hand-writing; and, which is perhaps unexampled in a biographical sketch, two delineations of a skull preserved in the Museum of Edinburgh, and generally supposed to be that of Buchanan.

ART. IV. Mr. Bowdich's *Mission from Cape Coast Castle to Ashantee.*

[Article concluded from p. 296.]

In the succeeding pages, our object will be to detail as much information as we can convey relative to the Ashantee monarchy, from the accounts supplied by the present author. The territory is indeed small, but it is important from the number of its tributaries, from its military power, which is rendered by these means disproportionate to its extent, from its wealth and resources, and from the communications which it affords with the *terre incognitæ* of central Africa. We shall abstain on this occasion nearly, if not altogether, from observations of our own, on a subject on which their value must be small; and we apprise our readers that our materials, and frequently the words which clothe them, will be drawn from Mr. Bowdich only: our object is impression, and we think that it will best be effected by these means.

Mr. B.'s

History. — Many difficulties occurred in the investigation on this head, which is more interesting as it regards the origin of nations, than as it gives the annals of the empire in question. To speak of the death of a former king is imagined to affect the life of the existing monarch: while the inability of the natives to compute time, and the comparatively recent introduction of the Moors into the state, threw additional obstacles in the author's way. The present kingdom has apparently not been founded much more than a century; and that of Dwabin, which joins it, about as long. The two have been always allies in war. At present, Ashantee claims the superiority; and it is manifest that the reigning monarch contemplates the reduction of Dwabin from an independent to a tributary power. According to common tradition, the Ashantees emigrated from a country nearer to the water-side, and subjected the western Intas and two smaller powers.

‘ The tradition, scanty in itself, is very cautiously adverted to, the government politically undermining every monument which perpetuates their intrusion, or records the distinct origins of their subjects: but, from the little I could collect, it appeared to have been an emigration of numerous enterprising or discontented families, to whom the parent state afterwards became subject. I am inclined to think, (the account of their coming from a country nearer the sea being too general for conjecture to revolt from,) that they emigrated from the eastward of south, where the territory admitted to be Ashantee proper is remote, compared with its extent southward, or westward of south, and the former consequence of Doompasie, and the towns eastward of it, support this: yet, the very few natives who pretended to any opinion on the subject, had an impression, that their ancestors emigrated from the neighbourhood of a small river, Ainshue, behind Winnebah: a croom called Coomadie is to be found there, but there is nothing else to countenance the report.’

The language of Ashantee and those of the neighbouring states towards the sea are merely dialects of the same root, and prove therefore a community of origin. The Moors were only occasional visitors until the reign of the existing monarch.

Constitution and Laws. — There are three estates in the realm. The King, the aristocracy, now reduced to four persons *, and the assembly of Captains or Caboceers. The constitution requires or admits an interference of the aristo-

* This aristocracy was formed originally of the associates of Sai Tootoo, founder of the monarchy. It was retrenched by Sai Cudjo, fourth king, who united three or four vacant stools, or successions, into one.

racy in all *foreign* politics, extending even to a veto on the king's decision: but they watch over rather than share the *domestic* administration, generally influencing it by their opinion, but never apparently controlling it by authority. They form, too, it seems, rather a cabinet-council to the sovereign, as he always retires to hear their opinions in private. The general assembly of caboceers appears to have least power, being summoned merely to give publicity to the decrees of the monarch. This system forms an almost direct converse to that of our own constitution, although the estates of the realm bear a *prima facie* affinity.

The law of succession is singular, the course being to the brother; the sister's son; the son; the chief vassal, or slave of the stool. This custom is universally binding; and it is founded on the argument that, if the wives of the sons are guilty of infidelity, the blood of the family is lost in the offspring, but, if the daughters deceive their spouses, it is preserved: a singular mode of insuring legitimate descent. — Other means of preserving dignity to the blood royal are not less remarkable, for it seems that the sisters of a king may intrigue with any man, provided that he is eminently strong and personable. The king is heir to the gold of every subject: but this law is sometimes partially evaded in the same way as are our imposts on legacies. Of the laws, Mr. B. has been enabled to record but a few; and we see nothing very peculiar in them to detain us.

Superstitions. — The word *fetish*, so constantly applied in all narratives relating to western Africa, has a very wide signification. It represents, first, subordinate deities, imaginary spirits or deities of woods, rivers, and mountains: these are worshipped as tutelary powers, their fame increasing as their predictions, equivocal like those of heathen antiquity, happen to be realized. There are two classes of *fetishmen*: the first record the oracles, and dwell, as priests, with the *fetish*; the inferior class are little else than petty conjurors, and fortune-tellers. The offerings to these *fetishes* are as extravagant on some occasions as they are barbarous; and the human sacrifices of slaves at superstitious ceremonies, especially funerals, which are so frequently reported in this volume, are dreadful in the extreme. Secondly, there are other *fetishes*, which appear to be idols of various forms and substances. In some states, different animals are worshipped as such; and the same name is also applied generally to all charms worn about the person, and sometimes, we imagine, to the sacrifice itself. The people have their lucky and unlucky days, abstinences from particular food at particular seasons,

seasons, modes of adjudication by superstitious ceremonies, &c. like all other barbarous and indeed semi-barbarous nations. We have no account of any religion, unless that which is offered to subordinate deities is to be deemed such; and Mr. B. could not trace among the Negroes any tradition of the Deluge, which there has been so much reason to regard as absolutely universal.

Customs. — Of these the most remarkable is that which is annually celebrated when the yam arrives at maturity, which vegetable is planted in December, and not eaten until the beginning of September, after the performance of the ceremony in question. The general scene exhibited possesses a rather close resemblance to that which we extracted in our former article, as represented on the arrival of the embassy at Coomassie. All the caboceers and the majority of tributaries are summoned to attend, extreme licentiousness openly prevails during the festival, and barbarity is glutted with human blood. Each principal caboceer sacrifices a slave at his entry, at each quarter of the town. All the heads of the kings and caboceers, whose kingdoms had been conquered from the establishment of the monarchy, and those of chiefs who had been executed for revolts, were displayed by two parties of executioners, each more than one hundred men, whose grimaces and gestures were frightful. About one hundred persons, mostly culprits reserved, are usually sacrificed at the same ceremony. The whole scene, whether we refer to the tortures of the murdered or the brutal licentiousness and drunkenness of the living, is shocking and revolting to the highest degree; for which all the splendor of gold and aggrg beads, of feathers and umbrellas, the noise of musketry, and the din of music, can afford but little consolation. It appears that all the royal ornaments of gold are melted down at every yam custom, and fashioned into new patterns; a mode very imposing in its effect on those who only pay an annual visit. About ten days after this ceremony, the whole of the royal household ate the new yam for the first time in the market-place, the sovereign attending.

The only other national custom to which we shall advert is that of the funereal honours of the dead. With all their magnificence, and comparative advancement in many mechanical arts, this people are undoubtedly far more barbarous and savage in their usages than the poorer and more ignorant negroes of Congo and its neighbouring states. — The decease of a person is announced by a discharge of musketry in proportion to his rank or wealth. The poor slaves rush from the house to the country, in the hopes that

the hindmost men may be seized for the human sacrifice, each with an "*occupet extremum*" probably in his mouth or in his wish. One or two are immediately sacrificed at the door of the house. The body, in the mean time, is dressed in silk and gold, with the richest cloths beside it. The members of the mission were witnesses to a custom or ceremony of this nature, performed for the mother of Quatchie Quofie, a person of consequence. Though it was esteemed very economical, the waste of treasure seems to have been great: but that was of no consequence when the waste of human life was at least as unsparing. Three young girls were sacrificed immediately on the death of the old lady, to bear her company. Contributions of gold, rum, powder, and cloth, were then sent by friends and adherents; the king, as heir-general, exceeding the quota of all but the nearest relative.

We walked to Assafoo about twelve o'clock; the vultures were hovering round two headless trunks, scarcely cold. Several troops of women, from fifty to a hundred in each, were dancing by in movements resembling skaiting, lauding and bewailing the deceased in the most dismal, yet not discordant strains; audible, from the vast number, at a considerable distance. Other troops carried the rich cloths and silks of the deceased on their heads, in shining brass pans, twisted and stuffed into crosses, cones, globes, and a fanciful variety of shapes only to be imagined, and imposing at a small distance the appearance of rude deities. The faces, arms, and breasts of these women were profusely daubed with red earth, in horrid emulation of those who had succeeded in besmearing themselves with the blood of the victims. The crowd was overbearing; horns, drums, and muskets, yells, groans, and screeches invaded our hearing with as many horrors as were crowded on our sight. Now and then a victim was hurried by, generally dragged or run along at full speed; the uncouth dress, and the exulting countenances of those who surrounded him, likening them to as many fiends. I observed apathy, more frequently than despair or emotion, in the looks of the victims. The chiefs and captains were arriving in all directions, announced by the firing of muskets, and the peculiar flourishes of their horns, many of which were by this time familiar to us; they were then habited plainly as warriors, and were soon lost to our sight in the crowd. As old Odumata passed in his hammock, he bade us observe him well when he passed again: this prepared us in a small degree. Presently the King's arrival in the market-place was announced, the crowd rolled towards it impetuously, but the soldiery hacked on all sides indiscriminately, and formed a passage for the procession. Quatchie Quofie hurried by, plunging from side to side like a Bacchanal, drunk with the adulation of his bellowing supporters; his attitudes were responsive to the horror and barbarism of the exultations which inspired them. The victims, with large knives driven through their cheeks, eyed him with indifference;

he them with a savage joy, bordering on phrenzy: insults were aggravated on the one, flattery lavished on the other. Our disgust was beguiled for an instant by surprise. The chiefs who had just before passed us in their swarthy cloths, and the dark gloomy habits of war, now followed Quatchie Quofie, glistening in all the splendor of their fetish dresses; the sprightly variety of their movements ill accorded with the ceremony. Old Odumata's vest was covered with fetish, cased invariably in gold or silver. A variety of extraordinary ornament and novel insignia, courted and reflected the sun in every direction. It was like a splendid pantomime after a Gothic tragedy.'

On the death of the King, all these ceremonies, which have been performed for any of his subjects during his reign, must be repeated; and the human sacrifices on such an occasion much exceed credibility. His majesty may possibly be more anxious for female companions in his death, on account of the number of such attendants that he possessed when living. The laws *limit* him to 3333 wives, but of these seldom more than six reside with him at one time.

Architecture, Arts, and Manufactures. — An exact idea of Ashantee architecture is afforded by the plates in this volume, of which we despair to give an accurate idea in writing: but we may state generally that it is not deficient either in elegance or in convenience with reference to the climate. The walls, which are of mud, are built much on the principle of what is called *Pisa* work in this country, and which has been introduced, of late years, occasionally in the west of England; the mode adopted being that of ramming in the clay between two frames of wattled work, placed at a distance equal to the proposed thickness of the wall. These frames were not, however, subsequently removed, as with us, but plastered over externally, like the *stud* and *mud* walls of the north of England, so as to present an even surface. The roofs were always sloped with gables at the ends, and were thatched with palm-leaves; which mode of roofing, in the drawings, has a slovenly and uneven appearance. The houses of persons of any consequence have open fronts, with square columns supporting the roofs, formed of thick poles afterward squared with mud-plastering. The ornamental part is thus described:

'The walls still soft, they formed moulds or frame works of the patterns in delicate slips of cane, connected by grass. The two first slips (one end of each being inserted in the soft wall) projected the relief, commonly mezzo: the interstices were then filled up with the plaster, and assumed the appearance depicted. The poles or pillars were sometimes encircled by twists of cane, intersecting each other, which, being filled up with thin plaster, resembled the lozenge and cable ornaments of the Anglo-Norman order;

order; the quatre-foil was very common, and by no means rude, from the symmetrical bend of the cane which formed it. I saw a few pillars, (after they had been squared with the plaster) with numerous slips of cane pressed perpendicularly on to the wet surface, which being covered again with a very thin coat of plaster, closely resembled fluting. When they formed a large arch, they inserted one end of a thick piece of cane in the wet clay of the floor or base, and bending the other over, inserted it in the same manner; the entablature was filled up with wattle-work plastered over. Arcades and piazzas were common.'

The appearance of these architectural patterns is very pleasing, and they have a considerable variety in them. The interior of the ceilings is framed of bamboo-work, painted black, and polished; the floors are formed of clay and stone, and daily washed or painted with an infusion made of an earth resembling red ochre. Every house had its *cloacæ*,—a convenience remarkable among negroes; and, indeed, cleanliness seems to have been very conspicuous in all the domestic arrangements. The present monarch, who has a taste for architecture, projects a palace which, if ever completed, may possibly excite the envy of more polished sovereigns. The roof is to be flat, formed of brass pans beaten into flat surfaces, and laid over an ivory frame-work, which will appear within. The windows and doors are to be cased in gold, and the door-posts and pillars to be formed of ivory. Who knows, after this, but that Ashantee architecture may one day supersede the *pseudo-Chinese* of some of our oriental *virtuosi* here?

With regard to other arts, the loom is nearly the same as our own;—the people excel in pottery, and in modelling, as well as executing goldsmiths' work, though in the latter they are outvied by their neighbours of Dwabin;—they tan leather, and dye it;—they have also a pine-apple thread, strong, and made from the fineness of a hair to the thickness of whip-cord.

Climate, Population, Revenue, City, Market, &c.—The Mission had, unfortunately, no barometer: but an account of the thermometer was kept from May till February.* The observations were made at different hours, both A.M. and P.M., on different days; so that it is difficult to give an average temperature for either. From June 14th to the end of the month, the average heat, A.M., was 76°; the earliest hour of observation, with one exception, being eight A. M., and

* See the Appendix to the volume. The register was kept by Mr. Tedlie, and, subsequently to the departure of the Mission, by the resident, Mr. Hutchison.

the latest eleven A.M. From June 18th to June 27th, the average was somewhat more than 78° . The observations at noon are rare. The hottest day appears to have been April the 30th, when at two P.M. the quicksilver stood at $88\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. In January, the glass was sometimes as low as 60° . The other phænomena of climate are summed up thus, perhaps more briefly than we could wish :

‘ During the first two months, May and June, it rained about one-third of the time ; throughout July and August it rained nearly half, and abrupt tornadoes were frequent in the evening, just after sun-set, ushered in by a strong wind from the south-west. The heaviest rains were from the latter end of September to the beginning of November ; they fell even in more impetuous torrents than are witnessed on the coast. The influence of the harmattan was described as very powerful. Generally speaking, from the elevation of Ashantee, (unfortunately we had no barometer,) it was much cooler in Coomassie than at Cape Coast ; indeed, from four to six in the morning, there was a severity of cold unknown on the coast.’

Ashantee Proper does not contain more than 14,000 square miles. The population is calculated on no very secure data : but, after five months’ residence, Mr. B. was supported in the impression that it must be about 1,000,000 souls, composed of 362,000 males and 638,000 females, nearly on the assumption of two females to one male. Of the former, he conceives that 204,000, or one-fifth of the whole population, are capable of bearing arms ; and, as the nation is altogether military, its available force can only be judged with strict reference to that fact. The author has found it impracticable to calculate the possible contingents which may be raised from tributary powers, but the first summons for such a force has generally been answered by a muster of about 60,000 men. The countenances of the males were frequently aquiline : but in many instances Mr. B. saw Grecian features in the females, with brilliant eyes, set rather obliquely in the head. — We have no calculation of revenue that makes sufficient approaches to exactness to demand our attention.

The city of Coomassie itself is built on a large rocky hill of iron-stone, but insulated by a stream and a marsh. The form is an oblong of nearly four miles in circumference, exclusive of suburbs ; four of the principal streets are half a mile long each, and from fifty to a hundred yards wide ; they were all named, though not indeed with much euphony to an European ear. Mr. B. reckoned twenty-seven streets in all ; and in several of them were trees, and public seats. These *Swaxoi* are generally circular elevations of two steps, like

like the base of an old market cross. The population of the town remains very uncertain, but the Ashantees spoke of it as amounting to 100,000. Mr. B. did not estimate the average population, absolutely resident, at 15,000, because the dependants of the large families are mostly employed at their crooms, or farms, within a few miles of the capital, although they swell the mass on public occasions: some of the children are usually employed in a similar way.

Of the provisions, the price of beef was beyond proportion dearer than other meat; the cattle were as large as those in England; the sheep were hairy, unlike those in Dagwumba, which are woolly; the horses were like half-bred galloways or ponies, not shod, and the common colours were dun and mouse. The sugar-cane grew abundantly, but no cocoa-trees were seen, nor did the fruit appear in the market.

Trade.—We have little occasion at present to enter into an enumeration of those articles of consumption, which would form the staple commodities of commerce with Ashantee; for not only is the disposition of the people averse to any great increase of trade, the nation being military, but there are numerous other obstacles to its extension which must be surmounted before such statements can be of much utility. The position of this country is such, that it might doubtless greatly augment its own opulence by becoming an *entrepôt* of European commerce to the more inland states of Africa: but the rise of merchants would be the ultimate downfall of captains and caboceers, since the wealth of the latter, and their relative importance in the state, would decrease as that of the former advanced. They prefer, too, a trade by barter, which does not suit the European merchant; and, as they are desirous of hoarding gold, they are therefore less inclined to deal with Europeans, to whom they pay that article, and vary, in return for merchandise. Rum and iron are their chief purchases from us at present, but the natives seldom buy more than to supply their own wants, and leave a small surplus for barter with neighbouring states for silks and cloths. Mr. B. attempted to induce them to cultivate cotton, as a commodity which would be accepted by us in barter, and possibly insure us the means of introducing some manufactured articles in return: but they had no idea of relative quality and quantity, and would not part with it, if reared, at twenty times its value. The less liberal commercial policy of the Dutch and Danes, who have settlements on the coast, — the slave-trade, carried on under the Spanish flag to a great extent, — and the renunciation of that traffic by the British, — have also raised

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jealousies

jealousies and difficulties not easily combated. At present, Mr. B. conceives that these other Europeans on the coast indulge those habits of the natives which it would be our first object to correct, and thus bar our progress by causing suspicions of our intentions. It seems that, until those obstacles are overcome which throw odium on our nation, while they increase the temptations for commerce with others, the chances of an improved trade are not to be sanguinely calculated.

The volume before us has undoubtedly given us a higher idea of the civilization of the kingdoms of western Africa, and those to the interior along the Niger, and even beyond Timbuctoo, (a prodigious extent of continent,) than we had previously entertained: but by civilization we mean only to express a greater advance in the arts requisite for domestic comfort, and a more extensive demand for articles of luxury. Fame may indeed have said as much before of detached states, but we have not met with so much detail, supported on such satisfactory testimony. Commercial speculation, therefore, as well as those benevolent views which so strongly characterize the British at the present day, in attempting to stem the tide of human misery where it flows in so fierce a current, both strongly enforce the policy of attempting farther intercourse with Ashantee. The states in its vicinity are so greatly under the influence of this power, which appears to be pushing forwards to farther importance, that such measures pursued with them must apparently fail, unless countenanced by this leading nation. The promises of immediate success are undoubtedly not flattering to the enterprize, but temperate perseverance might possibly accomplish much. Mr. Bowdich's views on this subject will be best illustrated by the following passage:

‘ It has been suggested to the King, and urged with all the address of General Daendels, to open a path to the interior through his kingdom, and to receive a duty, or tax, on all the merchandize transported, which would afford him a certain and considerable addition to his revenue; but even this appeal to the avarice of the Ashantee government has had no influence. It would be dangerous as well as impolitic to offend the King of Ashantee at any time, with the present garrisons of the forts, madness; and though his influence through that of Dagwumba, which is at his command, would extend to the Niger, yet, I think our anxiety to explore so far should be suppressed for two or three years, until he is satisfied that commerce and not ambition is the impulse. But in the interim, it would be desirable gradually to approach Inta and Dagwumba, by establishing a settlement up the Volta, which has been shewn to run close to Sallagha, the grand emporium of Inta, and is navigable within four days of it;
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and possibly might be made so even nearer. The Danes would no doubt relinquish their claim to the navigation of the Volta, for it is a doubtful one. Dalzel writes, "the Danes claim the exclusive navigation of the Volta, which is disputed by the English, who have a settlement near it, called Loy." The great prices the Ashantees get for rum, iron, &c. from the people of Inta and Dagwumba, and the avidity with which they purchase their small supplies, leave no doubt of the eagerness with which they would resort to our market; and the silks they obtain from Fezzan being dearer than our own, I should think we could induce a preference. Our Manchester cloth and cotton manufactures would be novel and useful to them, as those I saw wore vests and tunics. But here I must observe, that whenever our commerce with the interior may be established, the returns of it, in my opinion, will fall short of the general idea and expectation.'

Of the remaining topics, *Language, Music, Diseases*, and the *Materia Medica*, we must refrain from exhibiting any view, having already transgressed our allotted space.

Mr. Hutchison's diary, subsequently to the departure of the Mission, which succeeds the above statistical account of Ashantee, adds to our notions of the miscellaneous habits of the people. We may indulge a hope that the constancy with which he always absented himself from human sacrifices, though present with the King at other ceremonies of the same festivals where they occurred, may produce some effect. It is curious that a Mohammedan was at Coomassie at the same time, named Shereef Abraham, from Boussa, (where Park was drowned,) who also retired from such abominations. Much concurrent testimony stated that two white men were at Jenné, and two also at Timbuctoo; and, if this be true, it seems probable that they formed a part of Mr. Park's company who were separated from him. Mr. Hutchison had the means of forwarding a communication to them, which was likely to reach them, because it was intrusted to a Moor going to Jenné, by those whose favour he would wish to conciliate. Should these men ever again reach an European settlement, a residence of so many years must have enabled them to solve many important doubts.

In addition to the foregoing contents of the volume, Mr. Bowdich has presented us with an account of the river Gaboon, and a part of the adjoining country, where he was delayed several weeks; the vessel in which he returned to England being chartered to trade there. Some suggestions for future missions into the interior, and an appendix containing matter illustrative of various parts of the volume, especially a description of the Ashantee war, from Meredith's *Account of the Gold Coast*, close a work which has afforded

us considerable instruction and amusement. In the attempt to convey some portion of each to our readers, we have followed the author with a closer step than our usual custom induces, and with a confidence in him as a guide which we do not very frequently entertain.

We are sorry to see that Mr. Bowdich, to whom we really conceive that both his employers and his country are much indebted, has been constrained to lay before the public a complaint of the ill requital which his services have experienced from the African Committee, in a pamphlet of which we shall probably make farther mention in our *Catalogue*.

ART. V. *A Critical Examination of the First Principles of Geology, in a Series of Essays.* By G. B. Greenough, President of the Geological Society, F.R.S. F.L.S. 8vo. pp. 336. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

GEOLOGY may date its commencement as a science from the middle of the last century. Previously to that period, the speculations of philosophers on the formation of the earth had little connection with or reference to existing phænomena, and were in every respect as useless and fanciful as the cosmogonies of the Persians or the Hindoos. Lehman, the German, appears to have been the first to remark that the different rocks, which compose the crust of the globe, admit of a division into two classes: of which the first, or lowermost, are destitute of any imbedded remains of organic life; and the second, which are incumbent on the former, frequently contain the relics of animals or vegetables. To the first he gave the name of primary, on the supposition that they were created previously to the existence of animal or vegetable life on our planet: while to the latter he assigned the name of secondary, supposing that they were for the most part formed from the *debris* or ruins of the others. This division, which with certain limitations may still be admitted as correct, may be said to constitute the basis of geology as a science.

Since the time of Lehman, the surface of the globe has been examined with more or less accuracy in various countries; and an approximation to a certain order of succession has been traced in the rocks which cover the primary, though this order is subject to various irregularities and anomalies, the causes of which remain to be satisfactorily explained. Among the most interesting facts which these investigations have brought to view, may be stated the

numerous genera and species of unknown animals which have been buried for countless ages in the different strata, and which bear a more or less remote resemblance to the present tenants of our planet, but still are distinct from any existing genera or species. The remains of different species of these unknown marine animals, in the various beds that form some of the most elevated parts of the globe, prove beyond doubt that our present continents were buried for ages under the waters of a primæval ocean, and serve to indicate the great changes which the surface of our planet has undergone since the period at which those mountains were originally formed. In referring to the discoveries of more immediate practical importance, we may remark that coal and various useful minerals are associated with certain rocks, above or below which they never occur in any considerable quantity; and that various metallic minerals have also their peculiar repositories, out of which any search for them would be useless.

We cannot be surprised that numerous discoveries so new and interesting should have given rise to much premature generalization of facts, and to various theories of the earth. Among these the geology, or as it was called by its followers the geognosie, of Werner, was pre-eminently distinguished by the loftiness of its pretensions. It was declared to be a true system of the earth that unfolded the secret causes by which its surface had been successively formed; and, in speaking of Werner, we were told that "this great geognost, after many years of the most laborious investigations, conducted with an accuracy and an acuteness of which we have few examples, discovered the manner in which the crust of the earth is constructed. Having made this great discovery, he, after deep reflection, and in conformity with the strictest rules of deduction, drew most interesting conclusions as to the manner in which the solid mass of the earth may have been formed. It is a splendid specimen of investigation, the most perfect in its kind ever presented to the world." (Jameson's *Mineralogy*, vol. i. edition 1804.) Since the period at which this eulogy was written, it has been ascertained that the system of Werner is nothing more than an attempt to represent the surface of the globe as in perfect accordance with the arrangement and succession of rocks which occur in the vicinity of Saxony, where Werner resided; and it has also been discovered that he was but an inaccurate observer of the actual arrangement and succession of the rocks around him: or that, misled by an attachment to known theory, he could not or would not notice those appearances which were in opposition to his system. With all its errors, the system

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of Werner had its merit as an approximation to truth, and it was farther useful as it gave a stimulus to inquiry: numerous observations being made in different countries by its advocates or its opponents, in order to ascertain its accordance with present appearances, by which our knowledge of the geology of the several districts has been greatly extended.

The remark which we have here made on the utility of Werner's system may be extended to those of Hutton, De Luc, Whitehurst, and others. It is now, however, generally felt and acknowledged that facts are the desiderata yet required in the science of geology, and that the principles at present fully established are but few in number, though highly interesting and important. By such principles, we mean the inductions from facts which are admitted by all geologists. Among these inductions may be enumerated, 1st, that all the present continents have at successive epochs been covered by water; 2dly, that the strata which contain the remains of animals or vegetables were deposited in succession over each other; 3dly, that every stratum containing organic remains was once the uppermost solid covering of the globe; 4thly, that many of the different species of animals, buried in separate strata, lived and died in the situations in which their remains are now found; 5thly, that the surface of our present continents has undergone successive revolutions, by which the bed of the ocean has been changed; 6thly, at the period of these revolutions, the world was inhabited by genera and species of animals that no longer exist on our planet. These, we believe, may be considered as legitimate deductions from acknowledged facts, received by all geologists; and we are now accustomed to regard them as well known truths, which cease to excite surprise, though they would have been viewed with the utmost astonishment by philosophers at the beginning of the last century.

As the present volume professes to contain a Critical Examination of the first Principles of Geology, we think that the author ought at the commencement to have concisely enumerated what he regarded as first principles; and he might have classed them under four divisions, as *certain*, *probable*, *dubious*, or *false*. Instead of doing this, Mr. Greenough has presented us with eight essays, in which he has brought forwards the conflicting opinions of different geologists, and enumerated facts that are at variance with each of these opinions; which having done, he frequently leaves the reader without any decision on the question at issue. We apprehend, therefore, that those persons, who may take up the volume with a view to learn the first principles

ciples of geology, will feel more disposed to relinquish than to pursue a science, in which all appears involved in doubt and uncertainty. The design of the work, however, is not so much to *teach* the first principles of geology, as to shew the necessity of a more attentive examination of nature, and to place the evidence of facts above the authority of names however distinguished. In pursuing this laudable object, Mr. Greenough adduces numerous interesting geological facts, for the knowlege of many of which we are indebted to his own researches in Great Britain and on the Continent; and these we consider as constituting the principal value of the publication. The following are the subjects of the Essays. 1. On Stratification. 2. On the Figure of the Earth. 3. On the Inequalities which existed on the Surface of the Earth, previously to Diluvian Action, and on the Causes of these Inequalities. 4. On Formations. 5. On the Order of Succession in Rocks. 6. On the Properties of Rocks as connected with their respective Ages. 7. On the History of Strata as deduced from their Fossil Contents. 8. On Mineral Veins.

Essay I., on Stratification, occupies ninety pages, which are principally filled with the opposite opinions of geologists respecting the stratification of granite, and with an enumeration of various anomalies and irregularities in stratified rocks.

‘Stratum (Mr. G. observes) is a word so familiar to our ears, that it requires some degree of manliness to acknowledge ourselves ignorant of its meaning: the sense in which it is used is however very far from being precise. Easy as it may seem to determine whether a given mass be or be not stratified, there is perhaps in the whole range of geological investigation no subject more pregnant with controversy.’ (P. 1.) — ‘Stratum is a literal translation of the word bed, and most writers use one or other of these expressions indifferently. Professor Jameson, not considering how injudicious it is to employ synonyms for the purpose of expressing contrast, has introduced a distinction between them. Similar contiguous masses are by him denominated strata, dissimilar ones beds. Mr. Martin has protested against this innovation, and few authors without the Wernerian pale appear disposed to adopt it. Those who feel the value of such a distinction would do well therefore to select some happier phrase to express it.’ (P. 9.)

It may seem at first view extraordinary that several persons disagree in their opinions of the stratification of the same rocks: but we give the following instances of this discrepancy,

ancy, among numerous others of the same kind quoted by the present author :

‘ By way of illustration, I ask, whether granite is stratified ?

‘ “ It is stratified, certainly,” says Gruber, “ in the Riesengebirge ; but do not pin your faith on authority : take the evidence of your senses ; consult your eyes ; look at the rocks on the banks of the Elbe, the Schnee-grube, the Alpengrube, the Schneekoppe—stratification is so evident at all these places that no man in his senses can doubt it.”

‘ “ It is no less evident,” says Charpentier, “ at the drey Steinen : and again at Morgenstern,” says Professor Schubert, “ at St. Gunther, at the Rathhausberg in the forest of Bohemia, at Toplitz, at Carlsbad.”

‘ “ I can vouch for its stratification at Carlsbad,” says De Luc, and if you want other localities, you may add, on my authority, Grosse Rad, Friesenstein, and the valleys of the Zackel and the Queis.”

‘ But why so particular ?

‘ “ It is stratified,” says Dr. Mitchell, “ along the chain of the Riesengebirge for fifty miles together.” “ For one hundred and fifty,” says Professor Jameson.

‘ Yet M. von Buch followed this chain for nearly a hundred miles without being able to discern, in any part of it, the slightest trace of stratification.

‘ Let us go from the Riesen to the Erzgebirge.

‘ “ You will surely admit,” says Professor Schubert, “ the granite at Johan-Georgenstadt and Schwarzenberg to be stratified.” M. von Buch will not admit it.

‘ But the Fichtelgebirge.

‘ The stratification of granite at the Ochsenkopf is recorded by M. de Luc. Mr. Buckland, Mr. Wm. Conybeare, and myself looked for stratification there, but in vain.

‘ Saussure imagined, for some time, that Mont Blanc was unstratified, but at length corrected his opinion. The mistake arose from its strata being of a thickness so enormous, that there are few points of view from which they are visible.

‘ M. von Buch says, that the granite of Mont Blanc is distinctly stratified ; that the strata are vertical, or dip very gently to north, having the same direction as the chain.

‘ M. Brochant affirms, that in the high Alps, granite is at times stratified, and that very decidedly. Gastern, in the neighbourhood of Salzburg, is cited by Schubert as affording stratified granite. At Pommat, according to Ebel, the peasants slate their houses with it. At St. Roch, a hill on the Italian side of the Alps, Saussure tells us, “ that there are eight distinct beds of granite, the bottom one sixty feet thick, the next fifty, the third twenty, the remaining five, forty, twenty-four, forty, ten, forty. The lowest contains a half-inch stratum of white feldspar, which is parallel to the other strata. Similar appearances present themselves between Cresciano and Giornico.”

‘ Messrs.

‘ Messrs. Brieslak and Isembardi could discover no stratification in the granite north of Lario, and Von Buch denies that it is ever stratified in the Alps. “The whole rock,” he says, “is an assemblage of crystals united by the force of crystallization,” which was the opinion also of La Metherie.

‘ Schubert affirms, that granite is stratified in the Pyrenees. Cordier admits this, adding, “that the strata exhibit no regularity of direction:” “such is precisely the case,” says Dolomieu, “of all the granite which has fallen under my observation.”

‘ To come nearer home. — Professor Jameson states, that the stratification is very distinct at Goatfield, the principal mountain of the Isle of Arran: Professor Playfair is of the contrary opinion.

‘ Professor Playfair admits, that the granite of Mount Sorrel is stratified, not however without considerable hesitation, as his companion, Lord Webb Seymour, does not concur with him.

‘ In the bed of the Ockment, in Devonshire, granite lies in slabs like lias.

‘ M. de Luc found stratification very evident in Cornwall, at St. Columb, Tregonning Hill, the Land’s End, Castle Trereen; and Mr. Conybeare at Cliggar. At St. Just the granite rises in large flag-stones. At St. Michael’s Mount it exhibits parallel planes separated by layers, or wayboards of quartz. At Carglaze the parallelism is strikingly regular.

‘ Dr. Berger, however, did not find granite stratified in Devonshire or Cornwall; nor has he found it so in any part of the Continent.’

We consider this difference of opinion, with respect to a plain fact, as originating in an attachment to particular theories. It has been supposed, without sufficient evidence, that stratification necessarily implies a formation by aqueous deposition, in the manner in which mud or sand is spread at the bottom of lakes or on the shores of the ocean: but volcanic rocks are sometimes regularly stratified: not only those which have been formed by showers of dust and scorïæ, but those which have flowed as melted lava. The tendency to split into parallel layers appears frequently to result from an imperfect kind of crystallization in the mass, and takes place in various rocks, particularly when exposed to atmospheric influence. The geologists who have been attached to the aqueous theory have denominated these parallel layers strata: but those who have adopted the Plutonian theory have refused to admit the stratification of such rocks. According to Mr. Greenough, this contrariety of opinion is caused by the indefinite application of the word stratum: every one uses the word, but no one inquires its meaning: the remedy is obvious, *definition*.’

As the remedy for this evil appears so obvious to the President of the Geological Society, we entertained the hope that he would have rescued the science from farther confusion and obscurity on this important subject, by giving his own definition of stratification: but we sought for such a definition in vain. Indeed, from the summary at the conclusion, we are rather led to infer that the word stratification is destitute of any precise meaning, and is utterly undefinable.

‘ To conclude, then, let me ask, Where a rock is *stratified*, is it necessarily bounded by parallel surfaces? if so, let us hear no more of mantle-shaped, saddle-shaped, shield-shaped, fan-shaped, basin-shaped, trough-shaped stratification.

‘ Are its surfaces necessarily parallel to those of the adjoining rock? If so, let us hear no more of unconformable and over-lying stratification.

‘ Is it sufficient that parallelism shall be found, in a portion of the rock? Let us never hear of substances being unstratified. Or must it extend through the entire mass? Let us hear no more of strata.

‘ The laminæ of flagstone, the folia of slate, are these strata? Are laminæ, four hundred yards thick, strata? Is there any assignable limit to their thickness or tenuity?

‘ When one set of parallel planes crosses another, are both sets to be called strata, or neither, or only one of them? If one only, by what rule are we to be guided in distinguishing the real from the counterfeit?

‘ Must the beds be so arranged as to convey to the observer the idea of deposition alternately suspended and renewed? If this is not necessary, how is the parallelism derived from stratification, to be distinguished from parallelism resulting from other causes? and of what use is it to know whether a substance is stratified or not? If it is necessary, where two observers have imbibed contrary impressions, how shall we determine which of the two is right?

‘ Let him who can answer these questions rest assured that he has a distinct idea of stratification.’

Our readers will agree with us in thinking that such a conclusion is rather tantalizing, after having passed through so many pages previously occupied with the confused and varying opinions of former geologists, and particularly after the declaration that the remedy was so ‘obvious.’ Mr. Greenough gives definitions, however, of what working miners call the *line of dip* and *line of bearing* of strata, an accurate knowledge of which is of the highest importance in mining operations: but of which the definitions in question are not only obscure but erroneous.

‘ The position of masses is determined by the direction and inclination, or the dip and inclination, observed through their whole extent.

‘ Their direction is the position with regard to the meridian of an imaginary straight line, formed by the intersection of their planes with that of the horizon.

‘ Their dip is the position with regard to the meridian of an imaginary horizontal line drawn at right angles to the line of direction.

‘ Their inclination is the measure of the angle formed by the intersection of their planes with that of the horizon.

‘ If the direction is given, the dip is determined, and if the dip given, the direction is determined.’

Here the *dip* and the *inclination*, which are the same, are represented as two different things necessary to be observed ; and in the next place we are told that, ‘ if the direction is given, the dip is determined ;’ which is quite contrary to the fact. A stratum which ranges, for instance, in a direction north and south may dip either to the east or the west, and this can be determined only by observation. We have reason to know that some eminent geologists on the Continent have expressed great surprise that the President of the Geological Society has shewn himself so unacquainted with the very first principles of practical geology, and we have had some difficulty in persuading them that it was an error of inadvertence. Yet we must in justice admit that it is scarcely possible to crowd more obscurity and error into a brief definition of what is in itself extremely plain and intelligible ; and hence we are the less disposed to regret that Mr. G. omitted to give a definition of ‘ *stratification*,’ since the passage just quoted would lead us to infer that the talent of defining early is not the one for which he is most eminently distinguished.

The continental geologists also say that Mr. Greenough has quoted indiscriminately foreign writers of very unequal merit ; and that he has given the opinions of authors who wrote early in the last century, when little was known of geology, as possessing the same value as the observations of the most accurate of modern geologists. We confess that there is much truth in this remark, which we have frequently heard on the Continent when Mr. G.’s book has been the subject of conversation ; and the President himself, who indulges so often in a smile at the contradiction or supposed ignorance of preceding writers, will not be surprized to find that his brethren on the other side of the water are also disposed to encourage his *sourirs un peu malins* when his own errors are discovered and

and criticized. They are wrong, however, in the inference "*ex capite corpore*," as applied to the President of an English Society. The members of public societies in England are too independent to be guided in their opinions by any individual, however distinguished.

In the second and third Essays, on the Figure of the Earth, and on the Inequalities of its Surface, &c. Mr. G. states the various opinions of preceding writers on these interesting subjects of inquiry; and then, if we understand him rightly, he inclines to the opinion that the present inequalities of the surface, the forms of mountains, and the direction of valleys, have been owing to the agency of water: but he considers the continued action of seas and rivers as too feeble to have produced these effects, and that the only cause to which they can be ascribed is a *debacle*, or deluge. After an inquiry into the various causes that have been supposed to have occasioned this deluge, all of which he finds unsatisfactory, he thus proceeds:

‘ Where then was the cause of this transitory but tremendous disturbance?

‘ We are not aware of any force depending on the internal constitution of the earth, that could now effect so great a revolution as the deluge; therefore, it is not probable that the deluge was effected by a force residing *within* it, immediately before the deluge; for the constitution of the earth was at that period nearly the same as it is now.

‘ Did the disturbing cause reside then in the mechanism of the solar system? No; our knowledge of the laws which regulate the motions of the planetary bodies, aided by an experience of five thousand years, will not allow us to admit that this system contains any seeds either of derangement or decay.

‘ It must have resided, therefore, *without* that system.

‘ If we enquire the *extent* of the disturbance, it modified the outward form of the earth, but without affecting its interior constitution, or exerting beyond the confines of the earth any influence with which we are acquainted. The order of things, which subsisted immediately after the deluge, so much resembled the order of things which subsisted immediately before it, as to preclude the supposition that the earth, when considered in the character of a planet, underwent during that eventful crisis any material revolution; such a revolution it must have experienced, if the force acting upon it had been either the cause or the effect of a change of motion or position in any other member of the solar system.

‘ If then we would discover the cause of this catastrophe, we must look for a cause foreign to our globe, foreign to the solar system, capable of inundating continents, and giving to the waters of the deep unexampled impetuosity, but without altering the interior

erior constitution of the earth, or deranging the sister planets ; moreover the cause must be transitory, and one which, having acted its part once, may not have had occasion to repeat it in the long period of five thousand years. Any supposeable cause that could not fulfil these conditions, is insufficient for our purpose.

‘ Would a comet fulfil them ? Much would depend on its bulk and distance. It would not fulfil them if we suppose a comet, large in comparison of the earth, to move in a line joining the centres of the two bodies, so as to produce a direct shock ; but, if we suppose one of suitable dimensions to move in such a direction as would allow it only to graze the earth, it is not impossible that the shock of this body, a body, such as we require, out of the solar system, might produce the degree and kind of derangement which we are attempting to account for ; I mean a great temporary derangement on the surface of the earth, unaccompanied by any material change of its planetary motion. Euler, who, in a treatise entitled “ *De periculo a nimia cometæ appropinquatione metuendo*,” has investigated the changes that would be made in the elements of the earth’s orbit by a comet, its equal in bulk, coming almost in contact with it, finds that the attraction of such a comet would indeed alter the length of our year, but only by the addition of seven hours. The maximum effect resulting from the comet’s attraction at the time of its passage, would be greater than we should be led to infer from the total result of its attraction, after its final departure ; for the changes occasioned during its approach, would be in a great measure undone during its retreat ; but even at their maximum they would not be very great, because from the rapidity of the comet’s motion, time would be wanting to complete them. A comet grazing the earth would be incompetent, Euler says, to produce even a deluge of our continents unless the shortness of its stay were compensated by a magnitude of volume, exceeding that upon which he has founded his calculation.

‘ I shall conclude by remarking, that if the hypothesis of a shock derived from the passage either of a comet or of one of those numerous, important, and long neglected bodies, often of great magnitude and velocity, which occasion meteors, and shower down stones upon the earth, would explain the phenomena of the deluge, (a point upon which I forbear to give any opinion,) we need not be deterred from embracing that hypothesis under an apprehension that there is in it any thing extravagant or absurd. In the limited period of a few centuries, there is little probability of the interference of two bodies so small in comparison with the immensity of space ; but the number of these bodies is extremely great, and it is therefore by no means improbable, says La Place, that such interference should take place in a vast number of years.’

In Essay the third, Mr. G. seems disposed to admit that, previously to the great deluge mentioned in the second Essay, a deluge-similar in kind had occurred, though perhaps

haps not equal in extent to that which determined the present outline of the earth. He founds this opinion 'on the almost universal occurrence of conglomerate and grey-wacke on the confines of what are called primitive rocks.' It may, however, be fairly asked how this conglomerate escaped being swept away by the second deluge? To volcanoes and earthquakes, Mr. G. seems disposed to allow a very limited range of action.

It is well known to geologists that Pallas and Sir James Hall have endeavoured to account for the occurrence of a deluge, by the up-heaving of the bed of the ocean when new islands or continents have been raised. The latter philosopher has ingeniously and (we think) satisfactorily shewn, that the water is actually thrown over large portions of dry land by the sudden uplifting of the bed of the ocean during earthquakes; and that we have only to conceive the action of a cause similar in kind, but greater in degree, to explain the production of a wave that might sweep over the loftiest mountains. To this idea Mr. Greenough thus objects:—'In vain does Sir James Hall tell us that granite is of a more recent date than the rocks with which it is associated, that it has been thrown up by Plutonic explosions, that continents have been elevated by similar explosions; unless he tells us also what continent was raised at the time the (*debacle*) deluge took place, and where the granite is to be found, the forcible ejection of which occasioned the elevation of that continent.'—We think, however, that it is sufficient for the advocate of Sir James Hall's theory to shew that similar effects have been produced even in our own times, on a small scale, by the partial up-heaving of the bed of the ocean, though the bed may afterward have sunken down to its former level.* When Mr. G. has calculated the elements of the orbit of his comet, and the period of its revolution, he may then demand of the Plutonist what continent or island was raised at the time of the deluge. Mr. G. states that it is not probable that the deluge was effected by a cause residing within the earth:—for, he says, 'we are not aware of any force depending on the internal constitution of the earth, that could effect so great a revolution as the deluge:'—but are we to deny that the earthquake which destroyed Lisbon, in the

* The action of a small sub-marine volcano near Santorini, October 9. 1650, occasioned such a swell of the sea that some galleys of the Grand Signor were wrecked in the port of Candia, eighty miles distant; the waves rising to the height of forty-five feet.

middle of the last century, was produced by a force residing within the earth? That earthquake shook at the same time all Europe, a great part if not the whole of Africa, the continent of North America, and the West-India islands, and produced a violent agitation of the whole Atlantic Ocean. We say, then, are we to deny that this vast commotion of the surface of the globe was produced by a force residing within it, because we are not aware of any force *depending on the internal constitution of our planet* which could produce so mighty an effect? As well might we deny the emission of light from the sun, because we are not aware of any force in the internal constitution of that orb which can propel the particles of light with such astonishing velocity. On this subject, the Plutonist has greatly the advantage of the cometist; for he refers to a cause which, though he cannot explain it, is known to exist, and to be constantly operative: he can appeal to the evidence of his senses and of history, to shew that many hundreds and even thousands of square miles of the earth's surface have been overwhelmed or disturbed by the same cause; and he has only to conceive its action to be greatly increased, in order to account for any revolution of the surface, however important. On the other hand, the cometist appeals to a cause, of the action of which on the surface of our globe we have no evidence whatever. Of the numerous comets revolving through space, it cannot be shewn that any one has ever displaced a single grain of sand; and the meteoric stones, which have fallen into the sea, have perhaps never raised a wave that would have upset a fishing-boat.

Essay IV. On Formations. By this term, the author observes, is 'meant a series of rocks supposed to have been formed in the same manner and at the same period. The idea is therefore purely theoretical.' It has been asserted by Werner that the greater number of rocks are universal formations; or, in other words, that each different order, as granite, gneiss, mica-slate, &c. is spread universally over the earth's surface, like the coat of an onion, and that the same rocks in distant regions were cotemporaneous. These positions, Mr. G., in common with many modern geologists, is disposed to controvert; and his reasoning on this subject is satisfactory, and enriched with various illustrative facts.

'Enough has been said to make it evident, that neither any single stratum, nor single rock, nor any imaginable series of rocks can be traced in a continuous line round the globe. Similar strata, similar rocks, similar series of rocks are, however, found in different countries and in different hemispheres.

‘ But will this similarity of character entitle us to suppose that they were once connected? products of the same æra? precipitates or deposits from the same solvent? Certainly not; for similar rocks are continually seen in very different formations. How often do we observe, in a mountainous district, recurring strata composed of the same substance, separated by a vast thickness of strata composed of other substances! Is it not ascertained that the lime-stone of Melmerby Scar is more ancient than that of Alston? that the red sand-stone of Cheshire is less ancient than that on the banks of the Uske? that the green sand of Blackdown lies lower in the series than that of Feversham? the oolite of Bath than that of the Isle of Portland? In mineralogical character these rocks agree with each other; and yet a mere agreement of mineralogical character has been thought sufficient to establish the identity of rocks situate at the opposite extremities of the globe!

‘ The shells which occur within the basin of Paris, are said to occur also in Carolina and Virginia; be it so; are we to infer that the same shell-bank once extended uninterruptedly across the Atlantic?

‘ It is probable that rocks deposited in places at no great distance from each other, at the same time, were not always of the same kind. There seems no reason, for instance, why the granite of Cornwall should be contemporaneous with the granite of the Pyrenees, rather than with the slate. In cases where two rocks, commonly supposed to belong to very different æras, are brought together, the series being incomplete, the insensible gradation, which these rocks display, clearly evinces that there has been no pause, no interval of time between their respective births. A little north of Rother Bridge, in Westmoreland, there is an intermixture of character in the slate and lime-stone; although in the immediate neighbourhood these rocks are separated by the old red sand-stone, and at Ingleton, not very distant, they lie conformably to each other, and rounded pebbles of the lower beds are enveloped in the upper. It would seem, therefore, that the mountain-lime-stone at Ingleton was deposited at the same period as the old red, and not at the same period as the mountain-lime-stone near Rother Bridge; in other words, that two beds, agreeing in external character, containing the same fossils, and found in the same neighbourhood, do not belong to the same formation; while two beds having no such similarity in character or in their fossil contents do. At Argenton, in France, lias passes in like manner into green sand or mulatto, and even partakes of its fossils. Either this green sand then must be coeval with our inferior oolite, or the lias not coeval with our lias. If we assume that the beds of mountain-lime-stone in Derbyshire are the same as in Cumberland, the toad-stones of the one county must have been deposited at the same period as the hazels and plates of the other.

‘ Unable to connect similar rocks of distant countries, obliged to connect dissimilar ones in the same neighbourhood, can any one uphold

uphold the doctrine of Universal Formations? Let him, who answers in the affirmative, reflect on the consequences which that doctrine involves. He must admit that, when the particles of quartz, feldspar, and mica, which had heretofore arranged themselves so as to form granite, changed their mode of arrangement so as to form gneiss, that change was conveyed with the rapidity of an electric shock from one end of the world to the other;— that the currents of different hemispheres had so equable a motion; that the particles borne along by these currents were so equally assorted, that, within the tropics, and without, the same depositions began and ceased at the same moment;— that similar pebbles were detached from their native rocks, at the poles and at the equator, by equal forces acting under the same circumstances, and were deposited and cemented by the same means, and at the same time. All this he must admit, or reject *in toto* the doctrine of Universal Formations.

‘ It has been supposed, that the analogy observed in the rocks of different parts of the world does not extend to the secondary; but this opinion is erroneous. Coal occurs in China and the East Indies; the gypsum of America agrees with that of Europe; the Portland bed has been recognized in the neighbourhood of Moscow; the chalk and mulatto of Cracow correspond to the Irish, and the marl-stone, which contains ammonites in Hindostan, is undistinguishable from that of Lyme Regis, or Whitby. ’

‘ In the scanty catalogue of rocks with which the Wernerians have furnished us, we find some, as granite, which are common to all climates; some as primitive gypsum and serpentine, which are confined to a few spots; some, as topaz-rock and white stone, which are peculiar, or nearly so, to the neighbourhood of Freyberg. Yet we are told that the primitive, transition, and flötz rocks are almost all universal formations.’

On the Order of Succession of Rocks, which forms the subject of the fifth Essay, it is impossible, we think, that any observations can be more clearly expressed or more accordant with nature than the following:

‘ We have seen that formations are not universal, and that rocks found in different parts of the world, though similar, may be of different æras. We now proceed to a question not less important in a speculative, and far more important in a practical view. Let it be supposed, that certain rocks are known to occur in a certain district; will analogy enable us to predict the order of their occurrence? Do the rocks, of different countries, which resemble each other in external character, resemble each other also in relative position? or may a substance, which is superior to an adjacent substance at one place, be inferior to it at another? ’

‘ The question is not difficult. Every one admits that rocks alternate; if so, they do not follow one another in regular order.

‘ But, though every rock alternates with some others, it does not alternate with all. Flint alternates with chalk, clay with oolite,

red marl with gypsum ; but no one, I presume, has seen granite alternating with salt, or serpentine with lias.

‘ On the other hand, there is often such an affinity between two substances, that, on meeting with the one, we may speculate with a high degree of probability on the near occurrence of the other ; in this manner chert is associated with lime-stone ; rock-salt with gypsum ; coal with plate and grit-stone.

‘ Here, therefore, as in every other part of nature, we find uniformity and variety blended together : the succession of strata is inconstant, but there is a limit to the inconstancy.’

As connected with the subject, we quote the ensuing remark, though it occurs in *Essay the sixth* : — ‘ As far as our present experience reaches, granite and gneiss seem to belong, peculiarly, though not exclusively, to the more ancient rocks : chalk, clay, sand, marle, loam, and rock-salt, to the more modern. Grey-wacke, sand-stone, clay-slate, quartz-rock, sienite, porphyry, green stone, basalt, serpentine, compact feldspar, seem common to both. In general, the younger rocks exhibit more abraded fragments than the others, more bituminous and saline matter, more organic remains.’

The remaining *Essays* are principally filled with the author’s objections to the opinions of preceding writers on various subjects of geological inquiry, and scarcely admit of analysis without entering the arena of controversy, or stating at length the facts by which the different opinions are supported. We agree with the author in his opinion respecting fossil organic remains, that, though they may serve to identify strata in a limited district, it is unreasonable to suppose that, if any stratum had ever extended over a large portion of the globe, it would contain the same animals in northern as in southern latitudes. Mr. G. doubts the correctness of many opinions that have been advanced respecting organic remains ; and he denies ‘ that Zoophytes are the first born of animals ; for the genealogy of the Nautilus is quite as long as that of the Madreporean polypus.’ We apprehend, however, that most of those, who have advanced the opinion of the antiquity of Zoophytes, have admitted that many species of Zoophytes and shell-fish were cotemporaneous. We believe it would be difficult to prove that the remains of any vertebrated animals, and particularly of any that were viviparous, ever occur in the secondary strata below the mountain-lime-stone ; and we deem the position still correct, that a regular gradation of animals from the more imperfect to the more perfect forms may be traced by their remains, as we ascend from the lower to the uppermost strata : which opinion we do not conceive to be

invalidated by any statement that the present author has advanced. The subsequent observations on what are called the Fresh-water-formations are particularly deserving of attention.

* The alternation and occasional intermixture of sea-shells with those of fresh water, is common to all the secondary strata, and not unknown in the transition. The grey-wacke slate of the Harz contains encrini and reeds. Sea-shells, accompanied by impressions of fern, are observable in the dunstone of Ludlow and South Wales. Coal-shales and nodules of iron-stone, exhibiting casts of fresh-water muscles, are often interposed between the coralline lime-stones of the northern counties. The monitor, which occurs in the copper-slate of Thuringia, is associated with fresh-water fishes and marine shells. The lias affords ferns, nautili, and crocodiles; the slate of Stonesfield, remains of birds, beasts, and marine animals. The Petworth and Purbeck marbles, containing a species of paludina, alternate with beds of sand-stone, charged with marine univalves and bivalves; fruit and leaves are found with marine exuviae in chalk. The clay at Sheppy Island, abounding in sea-shells, is reported to yield no less than five hundred varieties of fossil fruit; fresh-water shells intermixed with marine have been observed, also, at Barton Cliff, at Brentford, and other spots near London in the same bed. The alternation of fresh and salt-water productions at Headen in the Isle of Wight, and in the corresponding strata of the basin of Paris, is notorious. At Guespelle, at Pierre-Laie, at Grignon, &c. sea-shells are intermixed with fluviatile. At Montmartre the gypsum exhibits animals of land, air, and water; the middle beds of that rock contain fresh-water shells; the upper and lower, marine.

* In the area included by a line drawn from Mayence through Frankfort and through Hockheim back to Mayence, similar alternations are observed of fresh and salt water productions. At Monte Bolca, Pappenheim, and Oeningen, impressions of fishes occur with land plants, and at Monte Pulgnasco, the bones of the elephant and rhinoceros are mingled with those of cetaceous animals.

* How these extraordinary alternations and intermixtures are to be accounted for, and whether they are attributable, in all cases, to one and the same cause, it is difficult even to conjecture. In the basins of Paris and the Isle of Wight, the only districts in which the subject has been properly investigated, it has been thought the most easy method of solving the problem to imagine alternate inroads and retreats of the sea, coupled with the occasional existence of fresh-water lakes.

* This hypothesis, however, is open, I conceive, to insurmountable objections. The supposed fresh and salt water beds are identical in substance, and conformable in position; there is no mineralogical difference between the beds of gypsum, which contain cerithiæ, and those which contain cyclostomata, lymnææ and planorbes; between the marine-lime-stone and the fresh-water lime-stone, the marine-grit and the fresh-water grit. Is it possible,

sible, that, the depositing menstruum having changed, the matter deposited should not have changed also? or that, a sea having retired before a lake, or a lake having been overwhelmed by a sea, no trace of such catastrophe should be visible any where on the then and still unconsolidated materials, which furnished the scene of action?

‘ Is the distinction between fresh-water and salt-water shells so strongly marked that they cannot be confounded? The common test is the thickness of the shell, but sea-shells are by no means uniformly thick, as we see in the oyster, &c., nor those of lakes and rivers uniformly thin. In a series of *bulla*, *patella*, *pecten*, *pinna*, *argonauta*, &c., it is easy to find shells as delicate and fragile as those which are usually contained in rivers or lakes.

‘ I am not aware of any other character, by which a naturalist can distinguish *à priori* a fresh-water shell from one inhabiting the sea.’

In the last Essay, on Mineral Veins, we are presented with a variety of interesting facts, which seem to involve the question respecting their formation in much obscurity; and the author cautiously abstains from hazarding his opinions on the subject, but concludes with stating the opposite hypotheses of Werner and Hutton.

Having now gone through the present volume, we confess that we find ourselves somewhat like Bunyan’s Pilgrim after he had escaped from *Doubting Castle*; and we believe that a similar feeling has been experienced by many of its readers. A state of perpetual dubiety and scepticism is perhaps more unfavourable to the progress of a new science than overweening confidence; at least such was the opinion of Bayle himself, who has been justly styled the Prince of Sceptics. Indeed, a habit of scepticism deadens that ardour for inquiry, and that intellectual energy, by which alone important truths can be elicited. It would be unjust, however, to omit the ensuing candid observations, which occur in Mr. G.’s preface:—‘ It should be recollected that many of the opinions here combated were advanced at a period when much less was known than is known at present, and would now perhaps, if opportunity offered, be disclaimed even by their authors. I make this observation not in candour merely, but in prudence; being satisfied that if geological science continues to advance at the rate it has done lately, the Essays now submitted to the public will, before many years have elapsed, be found to contain as many errors as they presume to correct.’ Yet we can scarcely perceive any necessity for this apology; since the opinions which the author has advanced as his own are so few and so cautiously guarded, that he can never be convicted of many errors, unless we should call error the con-

stant opposition to every theory that has been advanced by preceding writers. A former president of the Geological Society has well observed that the determination to oppose all system was itself a system, and like other systems had a tendency to obstruct the candid admission of facts and arguments. We entertain much respect for the character and talents of the present author, than whom few persons have had a more extended range of survey, or are better qualified to advance the science of geology by their own observations; and we would beg leave to suggest that one page of accurate observations is worth a whole volume of doubts. With these feelings, we cannot but regret that Mr. Greenough, who now presides over the Geological Society, has so rarely contributed to the volumes which have been published by that body; and the rather because we know not any observer, either in this country or on the Continent, who could more amply enlarge our stock of geological facts, if the dread of falling into errors did not prevent their publication.

We cannot conclude without expressing our satisfaction that Mr. G. has not burdened the science by the introduction of many new terms: we recollect only two in the whole volume, both of which we think had better have been omitted. The bed of green sand under chalk is, for what reason we know not, called *Mulatto*; and the range of mountain extending through a part of Devonshire and Cornwall, to which the intelligible name of the *Devonian chain* had been given, is here termed the *Ocrynian Ridge*, for which a singular reason is assigned. We are told that this ridge was so called by Richard of Cirencester, and that it is better to employ a term already used than to invent a new one: but we apprehend that few geological readers know any more of Richard of Cirencester than of the fragments of Sanconiathon or Berosus.

ART. VI. *Specimens of the British Poets*; with Biographical and Critical Notices, and an Essay on English Poetry. By Thomas Campbell. Crown 8vo. 7 Vols. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1819.

THOUGH we could have wished to solace ourselves, during the long silence of a poet like Mr. Campbell, with the expectation of receiving an addition to the valuable but scanty store with which his muse has occasionally delighted us, yet we are too well pleased to obtain any offering from the hands of *real* genius to be very fastidious in our acceptance of it on the score of the materials of which it is composed. Next to grati

gratifying us in his own native language of the lyre, we do not know that he could have chosen a task in which his time and talents could have been more nobly and usefully employed than the undertaking now before us. The very endeavour to commemorate the names of departed genius, and sustain their falling monuments against the obliterating hand of time, seems to manifest a tender and pious regard, which a poet best knows how to indulge, towards the illustrious dead. We have to regret, however, that these last eulogies, pronounced over the tombs of our poets, should be liable to the same charge to which the poetical productions of the authors themselves were exposed: they are often rather capricious, and always too short; and though we are disposed to concede much to a poetical imagination, we think that the original matter is neither sufficiently full, nor very equally bestowed in proportion to the celebrity of the characters of which it treats. At the same time, we are aware that such names as Chaucer, Pope, and Dryden may be safely left to their inheritance of fame; while Mr. C.'s laudable motive seems to have been to rescue and revive those which ran some risk from the splendor of cotemporary genius, and the strength and number of modern bards, of becoming extinct for ever. On this ground, he will stand free from the charge of partiality, which hasty readers might otherwise advance against him.

If we call to mind the voluminous authors who have preceded Mr. Campbell in this fertile field, we must allow that for accuracy of judgment, plodding research, philosophical deduction, and estimation of the various powers of genius, we have to boast many and luminous commentators on our poets: but we think that we have possessed few who have been richly endowed with that finer frame of mind, and those delicate perceptions of taste, which are essential in analyzing the beauty or the defects of any work of art, and, indeed, appear to be strongly connected with the gift of genius or invention itself. It requires a mind of creative power to judge truly and fairly of the productions of the imagination in others; and the poetical cause of our departed bards seems to have been fortunately reserved at last for the judgment of one of their peers. Many other points of excellence their former critics have shared equally with Mr. Campbell: but in touching on the tenderer chords of the lyre,—in developing, contrasting, and pointing out to view the finer beauties of the art,—none perhaps can fairly be put in competition with him. Though Johnson had an enlarged and powerful intellect, he was evidently warped in his opinions, and deficient in that lofty feeling which is requisite to appreciate the higher orders
of

of poetry. In his "Lives," Gray is ridiculed for his Odes, not excepting "The Bard;" and Collins is censured for some of his finest allegorical pieces. The critical disquisitions prefixed to the editions of Steevens, Theobald, and a long line of commenting worthies, are written in any spirit but a true spirit of nature and poetic feeling; forming rather polemic treatises of words, and dates, and texts, than just and valuable elucidations of genius, which they are more calculated to smother under their load of disquisition. Although Percy's "Relics of Ancient Poetry" had the effect of first rousing us to an admiration of early times, and other critics in succession (among whom Pope, Addison, and Warton in his "History of Poetry," chiefly led the way,) distinguished themselves from the herd of Dennises and Ogilvies that infested the land, they still left much ground untouched, and invented rather than followed up the art of criticism which has been since pursued.

We would merely infer from these observations that Mr. C.'s task is by no means a work of supererogation; and that judicious remarks and enlightened criticisms on the character and sentiments of our old English poetry were become really desirable, after the fiery ordeal which it has undergone from the pens of Lake-poets, and scholiasts, and periodical lecturers. The specimens, which Mr. Campbell has selected, are preceded by a masterly essay on the Origin and Progress of our Language, and the different Epochs of our Poetry. The plan, however, is by no means very exact or methodical, nor is strict justice observed in the distribution of poetical remark: yet the subject is altogether treated in such an original and superior style, both of thought and composition, that we easily forgive a little want of order in the arrangement. It must also be confessed that the same arbitrary disposition (incurred, we suppose, by the old habits and licensed imagination of the poet,) betrays itself in the apportionment of the extracts themselves. This choice must indeed be a matter of taste, and taste must ever be liable to a varying standard: but we think that it has here been regulated as much by whim and caprice as by reason; and were we to suppose the editor for a moment to be amenable to our elder as he would have been to our modern bards on such a point, we suspect that he would be in danger of sharing the fate of Orpheus himself among the enraged Bacchanals. How much more than we do would they exclaim against the scanty allowance of original remark; and how perfectly *horrified* would some of them appear at beholding themselves dwindled into the small dimensions of a very brief 'specimen!' For ourselves, we
think

think that we have some right to complain, when we behold the critical and biographical notices forming only a sixth part of the work; while we feel, from a view of the little that is given us, a tantalizing conviction of the writer's complete ability to have gratified us more. The perusal of a critical estimation of our great poets, by one of the first poets of our own age, is curious and interesting; and, as the 'Specimens' are chiefly valuable for the beautiful elucidation which accompanies them, when the latter is deficient we cannot but feel disappointment.

As it is, this picture of the past exhibits to the eye rather a series of colours inartificially blended, than the harmony of a complete and perfect display of art. We must, however, attribute this deficiency to the charm of genius, which has been too long indulged to submit cheerfully to the shackles of method and a complex arrangement of the subject; while we are amply repaid by the strength and beauty of the particular parts. Unerring poetic criticism, close and simple yet truly figurative language, and a fine spirit of enthusiasm for his subject, are the grand features which characterize at once both the critic and the poet. Such an union of fancy and judgment, which elucidates while it develops the principles of the poetic art, constitutes the value of the work before us, stamps it with originality, and distinguishes it from all the preceding disquisitions of our more modern commentators, not excepting Schlegel or Madame de Staël. Possessing much of the philosophical criticism, and of those powerful leading truths, which distinguish the writings of the former, it unites the discriminating powers of the latter with genius and poetic taste which are superior to both. If we have not quite so much general reasoning, philosophical deduction, and distinctive traits of national literature, we are more than recompensed in the developement of those feelings and elements of mind which peculiarly belong to the enthusiasm and imagination of the poet. We do not reap so much *instruction*, perhaps, from a poetic editor, but we receive more *pleasure*; and we cannot regard this as altogether a despicable consideration, in perusing a work of seven volumes, extending from the formation of our language down to the present century (1400–1805). Though most minds are open to the impression of poetical as well as of natural beauties, few are inclined to inquire into the origin of the emotions which these beauties inspire; and they must therefore be indebted to him who, possessing the sacred art both of appreciating and explaining them, speaks of those mysteries of heart and soul which, by ascending into the temple of fame itself, he may be supposed

est to have felt and understood. No hearts are so rude as not to echo back the voice of feeling with double force, then pronounced from lips touched with ethereal fire! We seem to recognize something which had long dwelt in us, at which we had never before the power to explain.

This finer and more touching sort of commentary on our earlier poets has long been wanting; more professed critics having generally chalked out to themselves a path widely different from the loving and social way which Mr. C. has pursued with his departed brethren. It may be imagined that, more awakened than they to the enthusiastic emotions of poetry, he would prove too interested and indulgent an appreciator of merit: but this is a charge which has seldom been brought against poets by their fraternity; and we are of opinion that Mr. C. has not often either allowed his partiality to cloud his judgment, or suffered any narrowness or exclusive reference to mingle with his admiration of the deserved excellences of all. From its affectionate tone, we should believe that this work had its origin (which is rarely the case) in the love and veneration of its author for those fortunate and glorious spirits, who first heard from the Ausonian shore the reviving echoes of Greek and Roman song; and who started in the strength and morning of Britain's fame, on that enviable and splendid career of mind which has left us only the incapacity of admiring, while we strive in vain to imitate. Our poetry has had its period of love and enthusiasm, like youth, and it is past! Only when young does it speak the language of truth and nature, in the pure and ardent breathings of a devoted spirit. Like the youth of life, also, little is left in its age and decline, but to recur with a mixture of pleasure and regret to the early hours in which it enveloped everything in the colours of its own radiant spirit. Hence the admiration of critics who have extolled, and the envy and regret of modern poets who have vainly struggled to imitate and restore, the spirit of strength and nature which inspired the genius of our early dramatists and poets. We attempt to catch their spirit, but it has flown: — we follow their style and language, and we only grow conceited. Even the *simplifiers* of the *Lake-school* cannot become natural. The truth is, our poets of this day have been born *an age too late* for immortality.

It is not, however, to time and events alone that we are to attribute the immeasurable distance between the poets (particularly the dramatists) of old, and those of our own æra. The very materials on which their spirits worked are departed: — the stronger passions of an early period of society are softened

softened down, and converted into the colder forms and manners of a refined and luxurious age : — the physical not less than the moral form of things appears to have undergone a change unfavourable to the impressions of ardent emotion and sublime feeling ; — and the civilized portion of the globe represents pictures of art rather than nature. There is, too, a certain period in the history of nations, in which poetry more peculiarly flourishes, that appears to belong neither to their rise nor to their decline, but to brighten the meridian of their noon-tide power.

The history of our poetry, as connected with civilization, is curious. At first, amid the desert gloom of wilds and forests, rose the hut of the hunter or the shepherd. When, as cultivation gradually advanced, chiefs were chosen, high deeds were wrought, and castles and feudal power followed. At last, the days of chivalry and romance appeared. From the ashes of Rome sprang the spirit that gave a new life to the world : — palaces and cathedrals rose at the beck of heroes and of monks, as from an enchanter's wand : — the Gothic towers and Alhambras of Spain echoed the legends of their warriors ; — and jousts and tournaments, with a delicate spirit of gallantry and honour, preceded as it were the burst of song which witnessed that all the spirit of man was alive and rejoicing. It was then that from rich gardens and fair palaces, from abbeys and splendid castles, the genius of romance was first heard to pour forth the music of our land, and, in the words of Milton,

“ To call up him who left half told
The story of Cambuscan bold,
Of Camball and of Algarsife,
And who had Canace to wife,
That own'd the virtuous ring and glass ;
And of the wonderous horse of brass
On which the Tartar king did ride ;
And if aught else great bards beside
In sage and solemn tunes have sung,
Of turneys, and of trophies hung,
Of forests, and enchantments drear,
Where more is meant than meets the ear.”

(*Il Penseroso.*)

Quickly did our poetical spring burst forth luxuriantly under the awakening genius of Chaucer. Then appeared Spenser and the sun of Avon, with a throng of constellations, and dispelled the remaining gloom and barbarism which enveloped our land. To all the richness of classical antiquity, and to all the newly awakened spirit of Ausonian song, were

united an original and creative power of thought and an expansion of soul, which (if we include Shakspeare) have never been equalled by the poets of any age or country whom history commemorates. On this portion of his subject, and on the rise of the language and literature of England, Mr. Campbell dwells with all the affection, the familiar acquaintance, and even the pride, of one who numbers and glories in a race of splendid ancestors. — The compound origin of our tongue, after the invasion of the Saxons and Normans, is well described : (p. 19.)

‘ In the formation of English from its Saxon and Norman materials, the genius of the native tongue might be said to prevail, but it subdued to Saxon grammar and construction the numerous French words, which found their way into the language. But it was otherwise with respect to our poetry ; in which, after the conquest, the Norman muse must be regarded as the earliest receptress of our own. Mr. Tyrwhitt has even said, and his opinion seems to be generally adopted, that we are indebted for the use of rhyme, and for all the forms of our versification, entirely to the Normans. Whatever might be the case with regard to our forms of versification, the chief employment of our earliest versifiers certainly was to transplant the fictions of the Norman school, and to naturalize them in our language.

‘ The most liberal patronage was afforded to Norman minstrelsy in England by the first kings of the new dynasty. This encouragement, and the consequent cultivation of the northern dialect of French, gave it so much the superiority over the southern or Troubadour dialect, that the French language, according to the acknowledgment of its best informed antiquaries, received from England and Normandy the first of its works which deserve to be cited. The Norman trouvères, it is allowed, were more eminent narrative poets than the Provençal troubadours. No people had a better right to be the founders of chivalrous poetry than the Normans. They were the most energetic generation of modern men. Their leader, by the conquest of England in the eleventh century, consolidated the feudal system upon a broader basis than it ever had before possessed. Before the end of the same century, chivalry rose to its full growth as an institution, by the circumstance of martial zeal being enlisted under the banners of superstition. The crusades, though they certainly did not give birth to jousts and tournaments, must have imparted to them a new spirit and interest, as the preparatory images of a consecrated warfare. And those spectacles constituted a source of description to the romancers, to which no exact counterpart is to be found in the heroic poetry of antiquity. But the growth of what may properly be called romantic poetry was not instantaneous after the Conquest ; and it was not till “ English Richard ploughed the deep ” that the crusaders seem to have found a place among the heroes of romance. Till the middle of the twelfth century, or possibly

possibly later, no work of professed fiction, or bearing any resemblance to epic fable, can be traced in Norman verse—nothing but songs, satires, chronicles, or didactic works; to all of which, however, the name of romance, derived from the Roman descent of the French tongue, was applied in the early and wide acceptance of the word. To these succeeded the genuine metrical romance, which, though often rhapsodical and desultory, had still invention, ingenuity, and design, sufficient to distinguish it from the dry and dreary chronicle. The reign of French metrical romance may be chiefly assigned to the latter part of the twelfth, and the whole of the thirteenth century; that of English metrical romance, to the latter part of the thirteenth, and the whole of the fourteenth century. Those ages of chivalrous song were, in the mean time, fraught with events which, while they undermined the feudal system, gradually prepared the way for the decline of chivalry itself. Literature and science were commencing, and, even in the improvement of the mechanical skill employed to heighten chivalrous or superstitious magnificence, the seeds of arts, industry, and plebeian independence were unconsciously sown. One invention, that of gun-powder, is eminently marked out as the cause of the extinction of chivalry; but, even if that invention had not taken place, it may well be conjectured that the contrivance of other means of missile destruction in war, and the improvement of tactics, would have narrowed that scope for the prominence of individual prowess, which was necessary for the chivalrous character, and that the progress of civilization must have ultimately levelled its romantic consequence. But to anticipate the remote effects of such causes, is scarcely within the ken of philosophy, was still less within the reach of poetry. Chivalry was still in all its glory, and to the eye of the poet appeared as likely as ever to be immortal. The progress of civilization even ministered to its external importance. The early arts made chivalrous life, with all its pomp and ceremonies, more august and imposing, and more picturesque as a subject for description. Literature, for a time, contributed to the same effect, by her jejune and fabulous efforts at history, in which the athletic worthies of classical story and of modern romance were gravely connected by an ideal genealogy. Thus the dawn of human improvement smiled on the fabric which it was ultimately to destroy, as the morning sun gilds and beautifies those masses of frost-work which are to melt before its noon-day heat.

‘The elements of romantic fiction have been traced up to various sources; but neither the Scaldic, nor Saracenic, nor Armorican theory of its origin can sufficiently account for all its materials. Many of them are classical, and others derived from the Scriptures. The migrations of science are difficult enough to be traced; but fiction travels on still lighter wings, and scatters the seeds of her wild flowers imperceptibly over the world, till they surprize us by springing up with similarity in regions the most remotely divided. There was a vague and unselecting love of the marvellous in romance which sought for adventures, like its knight-errant, in every

quarter where they could be found ; so that it is easier to
 of all the sources which are imputed to that species of
 , than to limit our belief to any one of them.'

ter this masterly and lucid sketch of a very interesting
 d of our history, Mr. Campbell proceeds to enumerate
 recession and merits of the Norman poets to whom our
 English versifiers were indebted for their rhymes : but,
 ut affording even a rapid glance at the intervening
 ries of mingled romance and history, we must hasten
 ce into the more glorious age of Chaucer ; to which
 C. does ample justice, in the united character of a
 rentator and a poet. Entering on the fifteenth century,
 serves : (p. 79.)

arton, with great beauty and justice, compares the appear-
 of Chaucer in our language, to a premature day in an English
 ; ; after which the gloom of winter returns, and the buds and
 ms, which have been called forth by a transient sunshine,
 pped by frosts and scattered by storms. The causes of the
 e of our poetry, after Chaucer, seem but too apparent in
 nnals of English history, which during five reigns of the
 15th century continue to display but a tissue of conspiracies,
 rptions, and bloodshed. Inferior even to France in literary
 eas, England displays in the fifteenth century a still more
 fying contrast with Italy. Italy, too, had her religious
 as and public distractions ; but her arts and literature had
 s a sheltering-place. They were even cherished by the
 aip of independent communities, and received encourage-
 from the opposite sources of commercial and ecclesiastical
 h. But we had no Nicholas the Fifth, nor house of Medicis.
 England, the evils of civil war agitated society as one mass.
 e was no refuge from them — no inclosure to fence in the
 of improvement — no mound to stem the torrent of public
 les. Before the death of Henry VI. it is said that one half
 e nobility and gentry in the kingdom had perished in the
 or on the scaffold. Whilst in England the public spirit
 hus brutalized, whilst the value and security of life were
 red, whilst the wealth of the rich was employed only in war,
 he chance of patronage taken from the scholar ; in Italy,
 ss and magistrates vied with each other in calling men of
 s around them, as the brightest ornaments of their states
 ourts. The art of printing came to Italy to record the
 res of its literary attainments ; but when it came to England,
 a very few exceptions, it could not be said, for the purpose
 fusing native literature, to be a necessary art. A circum-
 s, additionally hostile to the national genius, may certainly
 ced in the executions for religion, which sprung up as a hor-
 novelty in our country in the fifteenth century. The clergy
 determined to indemnify themselves for the exposures which
 had met with in the preceding age ; and the unhallowed
 v. DEC. 1819. D d compromise

compromise which Henry IV. made with them, in return for supporting his accession, armed them in an evil hour with the torch of persecution. In one point of improvement, namely, in the boldness of religious inquiry, the north of Europe might already boast of being superior to the south, with all its learning, wealth, and elegant acquirements. The Scriptures had been opened by Wickliff, but they were again to become "a fountain sealed and a spring shut up." Amidst the progress of letters in Italy, the fine arts threw enchantment around superstition; and the warm imagination of the south was congenial with the nature of Catholic institutions. But the English mind had already shewn, even amid its comparative barbarism, a stern independent spirit of religion; and from this single, proud, and elevated point of its character, it was now to be crushed and beaten down. Sometimes a baffled struggle against oppression is more depressing to the human faculties than continued submission.

' Our natural hatred of tyranny, and we may safely add, the general test of history and experience, would dispose us to believe religious persecution to be necessarily and essentially baneful to the elegant arts, no less than to the intellectual pursuits of mankind. It is natural to think that, when punishments are let loose upon men's opinions, they will spread a contagious alarm from the understanding to the imagination. They will make the heart grow close and insensible to generous feelings, where it is unaccustomed to express them freely; and the graces and gaiety of fancy will be dejected and appalled. In an age of persecution, even the living study of his own species must be comparatively darkened to the poet. He looks round on the characters and countenances of his fellow-creatures, and, instead of the naturally cheerful and excentric variety of their humors, he reads only a sullen and oppressed uniformity. To the spirit of poetry we should conceive such a period to be an impassable Avernus, where she would drop her wings and expire. Undoubtedly, this inference will be found warranted by a general survey of the history of genius.'

After having dwelt more particularly on this disgraceful portion of our history, Mr. C. seems to escape with joy from the barren though blood-stained course of civil troubles during the ensuing reigns of the Plantagenets, and hails the appearance of better days under the auspices of the Tudors and the Reformation. In following the progress of our poetry at this period, he remarks: (p. 111.)

' The Reformation, though ultimately beneficial to literature, like all abrupt changes in society, brought its evil with its good. Its establishment under Edward VI. made the English too fanatical and polemical to attend to the finer objects of taste. Its commencement under Henry VIII., however promising at first, was too soon rendered frightful, by bearing the stamp of a tyrant's character, who, instead of opening the temple of religious peace,
established

established a Janus-faced persecution against both the old and the new opinions. On the other hand, Henry's power, opulence, and ostentation gave some encouragement to the arts. He himself, monster as he was, affected to be a poet. His masques and pageants assembled the beauty and nobility of the land, and prompted a gallant spirit of courtesy. The cultivation of musical talents among his courtiers fostered our early lyrical poetry. Our intercourse with Italy was renewed from more enlightened motives than superstition; and, under the influence of Lord Surrey, Italian poetry became once more, as it had been in the days of Chaucer, a source of refinement and regeneration to our own.'

As the author approaches the glorious and poetical age of Elizabeth, his language and sentiments appear to partake of the enthusiasm and eloquence which characterized the genius of those whom he extols: (p. 120.)

' In the reign of Elizabeth, the English mind put forth its energies in every direction, exalted by a purer religion, and enlarged by new views of truth. This was an age of loyalty, adventure, and generous emulation. The chivalrous character was softened by intellectual pursuits, while the genius of chivalry itself still lingered, as if unwilling to depart, and paid his last homage to a warlike and female reign. A degree of romantic fancy remained in the manners and superstitions of the people; and allegory might be said to parade the streets in their public pageants and festivities. Quaint and pedantic as those allegorical exhibitions might often be, they were nevertheless more expressive of erudition, ingenuity, and moral meaning, than they had been in former times. The philosophy of the highest minds still partook of a visionary character. A poetical spirit infused itself into the practical heroism of the age; and some of the worthies of that period seem less like ordinary men, than like beings called forth out of fiction and arrayed in the brightness of her dreams. They had "high thoughts seated in a heart of courtesy." The life of Sir Philip Sydney was poetry put into action.'

The subsequent able and eloquent remarks on the poetry of Spenser are too striking to be omitted: (p. 125.)

' His command of imagery is wide, easy, and luxuriant. He threw the soul of harmony into our verse, and made it more warmly, tenderly, and magnificently descriptive, than it ever was before, or, with a few exceptions, than it has ever been since. It must certainly be owned that in description, he exhibits nothing of the brief strokes and robust power, which characterize the very greatest poets; but we shall no where find more airy and expansive images of visionary things, a sweeter tone of sentiment, or a finer flush in the colours of language, than in this Rubens of English poetry. His fancy teems exuberantly in minuteness of circumstance, like a fertile soil sending bloom and verdure through the utmost extremities of the foliage which it nourishes. On a

comprehensive view of the whole work, we certainly miss the charm of strength, symmetry, and rapid or interesting progress; for though the plan which the poet designed is not completed, it is easy to see that no additional cantos could have rendered it less perplexed. But still there is a richness in his materials, even where their coherence is loose, and their disposition confused. The clouds of his allegory may seem to spread into shapeless forms, but they are still the clouds of a glowing atmosphere. Though his story grows desultory, the sweetness and grace of his manner still abide by him. He is like a speaker whose tones continue to be pleasing, though he may speak too long; or like a painter who makes us forget the defect of his design, by the magic of his colouring. We always rise from perusing him with melody in the mind's ear, and with pictures of romantic beauty impressed on the imagination.'

Though the tone in which these sentiments are conveyed is somewhat too warm and figurative for a critic, yet the figures are always just, and manifest in their bold touches and rapid sketch the hand of a real master. The character of Shakspeare is drawn in a style even superior to this commendation. Having touched rather too lightly on the early dramatists who preceded him, and who in fact first gave birth to our English drama, long before the reign of Elizabeth, Mr. C. thus proceeds: (p. 147.)

' Among the precursors of Shakspeare, we may trace in Peele and Marlowe a pleasing dawn of the drama, though it was by no means a dawn corresponding to so bright a sun-rise as the appearance of his mighty genius. He created our *romantic* drama, or, if the assertion is to be qualified, it requires but a small qualification. There were undoubtedly prior occupants of the dramatic ground in our language; but they appear only like unprosperous settlers on the patches and skirts of a wilderness, which he converted into a garden. He is therefore never compared with his native predecessors. Criticism goes back for names worthy of being put in competition with his to the first great masters of dramatic invention, and, even in the points of dissimilarity between them and him, discovers some of the highest indications of his genius. Compared with the classical composers of antiquity, he is to our conceptions nearer to the character of an universal poet, more acquainted with man in the real world, and more terrific and bewitching in the preter-natural. He expanded the magic circle of the drama beyond the limits that belonged to it in antiquity; made it embrace more time and locality, filled it with larger business and action, with vicissitudes of gay and serious emotion, which classical taste had kept divided; with characters which developed humanity in stronger lights and subtler movements; and with a language more wildly, more playfully, diversified by fancy and passion, than was ever spoken on any stage. Like nature herself, he presents alternations of the gay and the tragic; and

and his mutability, like the suspense and precariousness of real existence, often deepens the force of our impressions. He converted imitation into illusion. To say that, magician as he was, he was not faultless, is only to recall the flat and stale truism, that every thing human is imperfect. But how to estimate his imperfections! To praise him is easy — *In facili causâ cuius licet esse disertis*. But to make a special, full, and accurate estimate of his imperfections, would require a delicate and comprehensive discrimination, and an authority, which are almost as seldom united in one man as the powers of Shakspeare himself. He is the poet of the world. The magnitude of his genius puts it beyond all private opinion to set defined limits to the admiration which is due to it. We know, upon the whole, that the sum of blemishes to be deducted from his merits is not great, and we should scarcely be thankful to one who should be anxious to make it. No other poet triumphs so anomalously over excentricities and peculiarities in composition, which would appear blemishes in others; so that his blemishes and beauties have an affinity which we are jealous of trusting any hand with the task of separating. We dread the interference of criticism with a fascination so often inexplicable by critical laws, and justly apprehend that any man in standing between us and Shakspeare may shew, for pretended spots upon his disk, only the shadows of his own opacity.'

With respect to the long contested question of the propriety of preserving the unities in dramatic action, Mr. Campbell, in closing his estimate of Shakspeare, observes: (p. 156.) 'On a general view, I conceive it may be said that Shakspeare nobly and legitimately enlarged the boundaries of time and place in the drama, but in extreme cases I would rather agree with Cumberland to waive all mention of his name in speaking of dramatic laws, than accept of those licences for art which are not art, and designate irregularity by the name of order.'

The next dramatist in point of time, as well as in fame, is the celebrated Ben Jonson, whose genius and writings are analyzed by Mr. C. with singular skill and judgment: (p. 157.)

'The triumph of founding English classical comedy belonged exclusively to Jonson. In his tragedies it is remarkable that he freely dispenses with the unities, though in those tragedies he brings classical antiquity in the most distinct and learnedly authenticated traits before our eyes. The vindication of his great poetic memory forms an agreeable contrast in modern criticism, with the bold bad things which used to be said of him in a former period; as when Young compared him to a blind Samson who pulled down the ruins of antiquity on his head, and buried his genius beneath them. Hurd, though he inveighed against the too abstract conception of his characters, pronouncing

them rather personified humours than natural beings, did him, nevertheless, the justice to quote one short and lovely passage from one of his masques; and the beauty of that passage probably turned the attention of many readers to his then neglected compositions. It is, indeed, but one of the many beauties which justify all that has been said of Jonson's lyrical powers. In that fanciful region of the drama, (the masque,) he stands as pre-eminent as in comedy; or, if he can be said to be rivalled, it is only by Milton. And our surprise at the wildness and sweetness of his fancy in one walk of composition is increased by the stern and rigid (sometimes rugged) air of truth which he preserves in the other. In the regular drama he certainly holds up no romantic mirror to nature. His object was to exhibit human characters at once strongly comic, and severely and instructively true; to nourish the understanding while he feasted the sense of ridicule. He is more anxious for verisimilitude than even for comic effect. He understood the humors and peculiarities of his species scientifically, and brought them forward in their greatest contrast, and subtlest modifications. If Shakspeare carelessly scattered illusion, Jonson skilfully prepared it. This is speaking of Jonson in his happiest manner. There is a great deal of harsh and sour fruit in his miscellaneous poetry. It is acknowledged that in the drama he frequently over-labours his delineation of character, and wastes it tediously upon uninteresting humours and peculiarities. He is a moral painter who delights over-much to shew his knowledge of moral anatomy.'

This judicious appreciation of Jonson's character as a dramatist, and as a poet, is followed by a rapid commentary on his various pieces, which our limits will not allow us to pursue. Mr. C. then takes even a more hasty survey of the poetic ground over which he passes; and, since the objects before him appear to lessen in dignity and grandeur as they gradually approach the days of the Stuarts, his contemplation of them becomes less intense, and his language less forcible and interesting.

Before the author enters the labyrinth of our metaphysical school of poetry, which is happily unravelled in the third portion of his essay, we find some beautiful and original remarks on the genius of Shirley, Massinger, and Ford. The theatre of Beaumont and Fletcher (the contemporaries and successors of Shakspeare) is characterized as 'containing all manner of good and evil:' (p. 210.)

'There are such extremes of grossness and magnificence in their drama, so much sweetness and beauty interspersed with views of nature either falsely romantic, or vulgar beyond reality; there is so much to animate and amuse us, and yet so much that we would willingly overlook; that I cannot help comparing the contrasted impressions which they make, to those which we receive

receive from visiting some great and ancient city, picturesquely but irregularly built, glittering with spires, and surrounded with gardens, but exhibiting in many quarters the lanes and hovels of wretchedness. They have scenes of wealthy and high life, which remind us of courts and palaces frequented by elegant females and high-spirited gallants, whilst their noble old martial characters, with Caractacus in the midst of them, may inspire us with the same sort of regard which we pay to the rough-hewn magnificence of an ancient fortress.'

From the dramatic era of our poetry which terminated at the approach of the civil wars, Mr. C. arrives at the age of Waller, Denham, and Cowley; on whom he bestows rather too hasty a glance, in order to reach the more classical and less metaphysical periods of Milton, Dryden, and Pope: whose various genius and productions are delineated in a style of criticism not unworthy of those great masters of the lyre. As, however, we trust that the memory of their immortal strains, with a perfect feeling of their beauty, is too fresh and recent in the heart of the present generation to need revival, we shall refrain from quoting even Mr. C.'s enlightened commentary.

We have remarked before that this work is not without faults: — but they are the faults of a poet; of one who has rather too much genius and impatience to sit down steadily to his task, and whose historic muse, like the lyric, has been often too capricious to obey him. On the whole, however, he has completed his design in a spirit most congenial to the subject on which he wrote; and we cannot but contemplate these *Specimens*, the portraits of departed minds, with the same sad pleasure with which we continue to gaze on the pictured countenances of those whom we must see no more. A melancholy tone, likewise, is often indulged by the author over these remains of the dead; which makes him appear like some of the *few* faithful freedmen of old, gathering up the ashes of those masters whom they had long served, in the enthusiasm of true devotion, and depositing them in the sacred urn, lest they should be finally dissipated by the unhallowed blasts of chance and change. When the period comes, as come it must, in which the poet and an illustrious compeer shall need the same endearing though solemn offices which he has here performed for others, may a kindred spirit and an equal genius unite to waft the names of Campbell and Byron some ages farther down the unceasing stream of time!

We would willingly believe that the energy and enthusiasm of soul which dictated "The Pleasures of Hope," "O'Connor's Daughter," and some of our finest lyric songs, is neither

extinct nor decayed. Surely, the chords of that lyre are not broken, whose music was the loudest in the hall! We cannot cease to regret the silence of Mr. Campbell, when we are periodically deluged with a flood of mingled barbarism and conceit.

ART. VII. *Tales and Historic Scenes in Verse.* By Felicia Hemans, Author of "The Restoration of the Works of Art to Italy," "Modern Greece," &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 255. 9s. 6d, Boards. Murray. 1819.

WHEN we consider the cultivation of the female mind in the present day, and the great taste and relish which exist among the ladies of our country for the finest and highest department of literature, it is certainly strange that we find so few poetesses of celebrity. The beautiful story of *Psyche*, indeed, raised the name of Tighe to an enviable and well-merited height in the public estimation: but, although since the publication of that poem we have had several fair candidates for public favour whose merits have been very considerable, we think that none can offer such strong claims to it as the writer of these '*Tales and Historic Scenes.*'—Mrs. Hemans is in fact no stranger in the literary world, but has long wandered in the Olympian bowers; and her previous offerings at the shrine of feeling and taste have met with well deserved encouragement. Her first publication of poems, written when she was very young, gave a promise of increasing excellence, which her subsequent productions, "*The Restoration of the Works of Art to Italy* *," "*Modern Greece* †," and the volume now before us, have honourably fulfilled. Her "*Modern Greece*" was an elegant and spirited poem, and some portions of it would almost bear a comparison with the works of the first poets of our day.

Mrs. Hemans's talents, however, are not of the highest order. Her poetry is graceful, and in many parts rises into the finer and more impassioned soundings of the lyre: but her verses do not possess that uniform deep colour of poetic feeling, by which the touch of a master-poet is so easily distinguished: they contain little of the "breathing and burning," or of that powerful strength of expression which stamps itself on our imagination, and makes our memory faithful

* See Rev. vol. lxxxii. p. 325.

† See Rev. vol. lxxxiv. p. 31. This was published without Mrs H.'s name.

even though we do not strive to remember. We should be unjust, indeed, if we required from Mrs. Hemans that which has at all times been possessed by so very few, and of which perhaps one only of the many living poets of our country can now be called the possessor; and, with the exception of this great qualification, we think that Mrs. Hemans has all the requisites which make a poet. She displays a strain of high and pure feeling, a great power of poetical expression, a correct taste, and a fund of good sense: which last is perhaps as essential to the poet as any of the former qualities, in order to prevent him from running into that affectation and mannerism which so many writers of the present day conceive to be the distinguishing mark of true genius. To these excellences may also be added a flowing and correct versification, and a careful propriety of style and arrangement.

The Tales and Historic Scenes, nine in number, consist of *The Widow of Crescentius*, *The Abencerrage*, *The last Banquet of Anthony and Cleopatra*, *Alaric in Italy*, *The Wife of Asdrubal*, *Heliodorus in the Temple*, *Night-scene in Genoa*, and *The Troubadour*, and *Richard Cœur de Lion*. The *Abencerrage* is the longest, and in our opinion the best: — the others being rather poetical pictures than tales, and presenting to the reader a single scene of action rather than a chain of continued events. We shall endeavour to give a short account of this tale, and shall select our specimens from its pages.

The story of the Abencerrages, and their treacherous massacre by the rival tribe of the Zegri, is tolerably well known. Hamet, a young Abencerrage, or Aben-zurrah chief, attempts to revenge the death of his father and brother, who fell with their friends in the fatal Hall of Lions; and the tale opens with a description of the deep and lovely repose of the magnificent Alhambra, which is suddenly broken by the fearful contest of the two rival tribes, when Hamet at the head of his Aben-zurrahs defeats the Zegrís and the King Abdallah:

‘ But first and bravest of that gallant train,
Where foes are mightiest charging ne’er in vain,
In his red hand the sabre glancing bright,
His dark eye flashing with a fiercer light,
Ardent, untired, scarce conscious that he bleeds,
His Aben-zurrahs there young Hamet leads;
While swells his voice that wild acclaim on high,
Revenge and freedom! let the tyrant die.’

Abdallah, who had fled during the temporary success of his enemies, returns on the following morning, and the
Aben-

Abencerrages are driven from their country. This exile is rendered still more dreadful to Hamet by the severance of the ties of love ; and at midnight he seeks the young Zayda, a Zegri maid, to take his last farewell. The scene between them is very beautiful, and we are sorry that we cannot quote the whole of it.

“ Zayda, my doom is fix'd — another day,
And the wrong'd exile shall be far away ;
Far from the scenes where still his heart must be,
His home of youth, and more than all — from thee.
Oh what a cloud hath gathered o'er my lot
Since last we met on this fair tranquil spot !
Lovely as then, the soft and silent hour,
And not a rose hath faded from thy bower ;
But I — my hopes the tempest hath o'erthrown,
And changed my heart to all but thee alone.

* * * * *

But when my steps are distant, and my name
Thou hear'st no longer in the song of fame ;
When time steals on in silence to efface
Of early love each pure and sacred trace,
Causing our sorrows and our hopes to seem
But as the moonlight pictures of a dream,
Still shall thy soul be with me in the truth
And all the fervor of affection's youth.”

Zayda, who ‘ had learn'd to suffer and be true,’ gives him a sweet promise of affection and constancy, and then addresses him in these beautiful lines :

“ But thou, my Hamet, thou canst yet bestow
All that of joy my blighted lot can know.
Oh ! be thou still the high-soul'd and the brave,
To whom my first and fondest vows I gave,
In thy proud fame's untarnished beauty still,
The lofty visions of my youth fulfil,
So shall it soothe me midst my heart's despair,
To hold undimm'd one glorious image there !”

They part, and

“ Alone she weeps — that hour of parting o'er —
When shall the pang it leaves be felt no more ?
The gale breathes light and fans her bosom fair,
Showering the dewy rose-leaves o'er her hair ;
But ne'er for her shall dwell reviving power,
In balmy dew, soft breeze, or fragrant flower,
To wake once more that calm, serene delight,
The soul's young bloom which passion's breath could blight.”

Hamet, on leaving her, seeks the burial-place of the Abencerrages ; where, over the graves of his slaughtered father and brother,

ther, he devotes his powers and his life to avenge the murder. To accomplish this end, he forsakes the Crescent joins the standard of the Cross, and in the battle of the ... he and his Aben-zurrahs are mingled with the warriors of Castile. As he wanders in trouble and anguish from this ... of his vengeance and his woe, he starts at the sound of a low moan like that of one from whom life is passing. It is his friend Osmyn; who, shocked at his apostacy, refused to permit him to minister to the last agonies of the departing spirit. His heart, torn by so many passions, now finds refuge to her

—— ‘ whose love had been

His own, unchanged thro’ many a stormy scene:’

even she avoids the man who had betrayed his country, she accuses her of inconstancy.

“ Hamet, oh wrong me not — I too could speak
Of sorrows, trace them on my faded cheek,
In the sunk eye, and in the wasted form,
That tell the heart hath nursed a canker-worm !

* * * * *

Oh wert thou still what once I fondly deem’d,
All that thy mien expressed, thy spirit seem’d,
My love had been devotion, till in death
Thy name had trembled on my latest breath.

* * * * *

Hadst thou but died e’er yet dishonour’s cloud
O’er that young name had gather’d as a shroud,
I then had mourn’d thee proudly, and my grief
In its own loftiness had found relief,
A noble sorrow cherished to the last,
When every meaner woe had long been past.”

He then leaves her; and we next find him in the chivalrous procession of the nobles of Castile, entering the conquered city of Granada, of which we have an animated and magnificent description.

The Moors are driven to seek a retreat from their enemies in the fastnesses of their mountains:

‘ There high-born maids, that mov’d upon the earth
More like bright creatures of ærial birth,
Nurslings of palaces, have fled to share
The fate of brothers and of sires; to bear
All undismay’d privation and distress,
And smile, the roses of the wilderness;
And mothers with their infants, there to dwell
In the deep forest or the cavern cell,
And rear their offspring ’mid the rocks, to be,
If now no more the mighty, still the free. —

‘ And

‘ And youth in all its pride of strength is there
 And buoyancy of spirit, form’d to dare
 And suffer all things : — fall’n on evil days,
 Yet darting o’er the world an ardent gaze,
 As on the arena where its powers may find
 Full scope to strive for glory with mankind.’

The apostate Hamet leads the invasion of this last sanctuary of liberty, in the vain hope of meeting death from the weapons of the injured. Rushing forwards, he at length reaches a lofty cave, from which rises the sound of wild and solemn lamentations. They proceed from Zayda, weeping over the dead body of her father, who was slain in this last fatal attack. After a melancholy scene, in which Zayda’s heart is distracted between affection for her father and love of him who had caused his death, she beseeches Hamet to depart ere the Zegris return to the cavern : he refuses ; and, in endeavouring to save him from their resentment, she perishes by their swords. The Moors, dismayed at her death, forget their vengeance, and suffer Hamet to depart.

‘ A few short years, and in the lonely cave
 Where sleeps the Zegri maid is Hamet’s grave : —
 Sever’d in life, united in the tomb, —
 Such, of the hearts that loved so well, the doom.’

In the design and execution of this tale, as well as in some of the sentiments, we perceive a resemblance to the Fire-Worshippers of Mocre. Of the other tales, ‘ The Widow of Crescentius ’ is perhaps the best : but our limits will not permit us to make extracts from it.

Mrs. Hemans is rather too fond of description : but her delineation of the scenes which are enriched by classical association is masterly* and touching. Of this power, the commencement of ‘ Alaric in Italy ’ may be mentioned as an example. When Liberty strings her lyre, she frequently rises into a more elevated and impressive strain of poetry, of which we could give many proofs from the present volume.

We shall always greet with gladness the appearance of this lady before the public ; feeling assured that we shall never receive any production from her pen which is not consonant to pure feelings and correct taste.

* May we use this word with application to a female ?

ART. VIII. *A Series of Sacred Songs, Duets, and Trios*; the Words by Thomas Moore, Esq. The Music composed and selected by Sir John Stevenson, Mus. Doc., and Mr. Moore. Folio. 1l. 1s. sewed. Power. 1819.

WE resume our double task of criticizing the poetry and the music of these interesting joint efforts of Mr. Moore and Sir John Stevenson. — They have now taken down the sacred harp from the trees on the banks of Euphrates or of Jordan, and have endeavoured to lend a higher character to their accustomed melodies.

“*Sicelides Musæ paulò majora cunamus.*”

Alas! *this* is often an unsuccessful appeal: but, when the poet still more venturously says,

“*Ye Nymphs of Solyma, begin the song!*”

those generally inaccessible *Nymphs* often reject an appellant who has been favoured with the smiles of their less lofty sisters. Certainly, no minstrel of the age has had more reason to boast of the encouraging smile of the Lesbian or the Teian Muse, than Mr. Moore: but the harp of Judah is an instrument of sublimer inspiration;—difficult and even dangerous to the touch of mortals who have sung the tenderest strains “to virgins and to youths.”

We are far from intending to represent this popular writer as having wholly failed in his bold attempt; and still less can we purpose to throw the most distant imputation on the genuine feelings of reverence and piety, which, no doubt, occupied his mind when engaged in the more serious of these compositions: but, whether from some want of severity of taste, or from not having formed a sufficiently copious *scriptural vocabulary*, ideas and words *do* occur in these poems which appear to us painfully *out of keeping*. As this is an offensive charge to a poet, we shall, without farther comment, submit to our readers the grounds on which we have formed, and have regretted to form it.

‘AIR — *Unknown.* *

‘ Thou art, oh God! the life and light
Of all this wond’rous world we see;
Its glow by day, its smile by night,
Are but reflections caught from Thee.
Where’er we turn, thy glories shine,
And all things fair and bright are thine.

* * I have heard that this air is by the late Mrs. Sheridan. It is sung to the beautiful old words, “I do confess thou’rt smooth and fair.”

‘ When

- ‘ When day, with farewell beam, delays
Among the opening clouds of even ;
And we can almost think we gaze
Thro’ golden vistas into heaven ;
Those hues, that make the sun’s decline
So soft, so radiant, LORD ! are thine.
- ‘ When night, with wings of starry gloom,
O’ershadows all the earth and skies,
Like some dark, beauteous bird, whose plume
Is sparkling with unnumber’d eyes ; —
That sacred gloom, those fires divine,
So grand, so countless, LORD ! are thine.
- ‘ When youthful spring around us breathes,
Thy spirit warms her fragrant sigh ;
And every flower the summer wreathes
Is born beneath that kindling eye.
Where’er we turn, thy glories shine,
And all things fair and bright are thine.’

The lines, or the expressions, in this little poem, (which, as a “*sacro-profane*” effusion, has, no doubt, much of the usual merits of the writer,) to which we object as impairing the just character of an *address to the Deity*, are the following:

‘ Its glow by day, *its smile by night.*’

Surely this is a prettiness wholly inadmissible.

‘ And we can almost think we gaze
Thro’ golden vistas into Heaven.’

The first of these verses is too much about *ourselves* and *our own* fancies for such an occasion; and the second is a *conceit* fitter for a Roman Catholic painting than for a Protestant hymn.

‘ Like some dark, beauteous bird, whose plume
Is sparkling with unnumbered eyes.’

What a simile for the magnificently adorned darkness of night !

‘ Thy spirit warms *her* fragrant sigh.’

‘ Is born beneath *that* kindling eye.’

We know not whether we have succeeded in conveying to our readers the sort of impression which these lines have made on us. If we have, we need not subjoin farther examples of the same supposed faults ; and, if not, perhaps no ampler explanation would make us intelligible.

The next poem, ‘ *This World is all a fleeting Show,*’ contains nothing that can properly be called *sacred* but the word
‘ heaven.’

heaven,' which is the brilliant burden of every stanza. If, however, it be considered as a specimen of the lighter *moral description*, as a string of happy Horatian reflections on the brevity and instability of earthly enjoyments, we do not know a more pleasing specimen of Mr. Moore's peculiar excellence; which, in our minds, is the pathetic management of these common topics.

- ' This world is all a fleeting show
For man's illusion given,
The smiles of joy, the tears of woe,
Deceitful shine, deceitful flow, —
There's nothing true but Heaven !
- ' And false the light on glory's plume,
As fading hues of even ;
And love, and hope, and beauty's bloom,
Are blossoms gathered for the tomb, —
There's nothing bright but Heaven !
- ' Poor wanderers of a stormy day,
From wave to wave we're driven,
And fancy's flash and reason's ray
Serve but to light the troubled way, —
There's nothing calm but Heaven !

A most elegant and touching little performance ! Still, to us, at least, it is obvious that its charm would have been destroyed by the admixture of any thing of a more strictly religious character ; by an *address to the Deity*, for instance, or any strong expressions of human piety. — "*Nunc non erat hic locus*," in our opinion ; and the incongruous union of sacred and profane images would strike us all the more forcibly, from the acknowledged splendor and vivacity of this poet's imagination. There are, in a word, a tone and a spirit, *exclusive of all others*, which can alone duly characterize a *sacred poem* ; and, until something of the fervour and the simplicity of the Royal Minstrel has been caught by the uninspired writer, all his tropes and figures, all his play of fancy, will be but dust in the balance. If this remark be correct, here is a satisfactory clue to the wonder which many good men have expressed, at the rare instances of success in religious composition which the poets of England, and indeed of all countries, have exhibited. A close adherence to the facts and to the phraseology of Scripture, where the latter can be adopted with poetical effect, is the only guide which we are able to offer to the youthful candidate for this precarious chaplet of renown. To elucidate, and indeed to substantiate this part of our argument, we will quote another of these poems

poems entire; and here we are truly happy to be able to congratulate Mr. Moore on his honourable success: or at all events on his having avoided the blemishes which we have before endeavoured to detect, and avoided, perhaps, by the very means which we have here suggested. Indeed the numerous quotations from Scripture at the bottom of this page, which we omit, prove the truth of our supposition.

- ‘ Fall’n is thy throne, oh Israel!
Silence is o’er thy plains;
Thy dwellings all lie desolate,
Thy children weep in chains.
Where are the dews that fed thee
On Etham’s barren shore?
That fire from Heaven which led thee,
Now lights thy path no more.
- ‘ Lord! thou did’st love Jerusalem;
Once, she was all thy own;
Her love thy fairest heritage,
Her power thy glory’s throne.
Till evil came, and blighted
Thy long-loved olive tree;
And Salem’s shrines were lighted
For other gods than thee!
- ‘ Then sunk the star of Solyma;
Then pass’d her glory’s day,
Like heath that, in the wilderness,
The wild wind whirls away.
Silent and waste her bowers,
Where once the mighty trod,
And sunk those guilty towers,
Where Baal reign’d as God.
- ‘ “Go”, said the Lord, “ye conquerors!
Steep in her blood your swords,
And raze to earth her battlements,
For they are not the Lord’s!
Till Zion’s mournful daughter,
O’er kindred bones shall tread,
And Hinnom’s vale of slaughter
Shall hide but half her dead.”’

We must not, however, pass the studied or the carelessly admitted alliteration, ‘in the *wilderness the wild wind whirls*’, which is unworthy of a place in this energetic little effusion.

‘Saint Jerome’s LOVE’ *must*, we fear, have been intended to excite a smile! and the note which alludes to the ‘intimacy’ of the Saint ‘with the matron Paula’ precludes the possibility of a mistake, even if the title left it doubtful. In any other collection, we should have admired this tender can-

ticle:

icle: but, even if it came to us attended with congenial company, we should still wish it to be introduced with a different title. We know that it is a very distinct thing "*Ludere cum SACRIS*" and "*Ludere cum SANCTIS*:" but, still, we do not think that St. Jerome deserves to have his affections identified with "Little Fanny's Love," or "Little Peggy's Love," or any of the LITTLE LOVES with which this amorous period has abounded; with the

—— "*Veneres, Cupidinesque,*
Et quantum est hominum venustiorum."

We scarcely know what to say about '*The Bird let loose in Eastern Skies*:' the first stanza is so generally poetical, and the last is so appropriately pious. We must forgive, we believe, any slight appearance of incongruity in this beautiful Ode, or Hymn, or whatever it may be called.

'*Oh thou who dry'st the Mourner's Tear*' begins well, and has a nervous simplicity in several of its lines: but we must, unrelentingly, proscribe 'the plants that throw their fragrance from the wounded part,' compared to 'a broken heart,' as it only for the "*Veneres, Cupidinesque*," &c. mentioned above. Besides, the image is now hackneyed.

'*Weep not for those whom the Veil of the Tomb*' is another of those compositions, in which Mr. Moore has added *personal tenderness* to Horace: that is, he has given a peculiar and a most impressive pathos to a style generally resembling the best moral lyrics of that unrivalled antient. We apprehend that the first word in the fourth line of the second stanza should be *while* instead of 'and.'

'*The Turf shall be my fragrant Shrine*' displays a very pretty *Darwinian* spirit of adoration, and consecrates the "*Temple of Nature*" in most glowing language. The tone of the poem, however, with all its force of imagination and diction, must be confessed to be somewhat heathenish; and we would advise the poet to chuse at least another climate, before he expresses this decided preference for worshipping *sub Dio*, — for religiously meditating in the open air.

"*Puræ sunt plateæ, nihil ut meditantibus obstat,*"

is not, *always*, true of London.

Mr. Moore seems also to have forgotten, in his recondite notation of "*Pii orant tacitè*," that the grammar (*where it occurs*) teaches him to say *taciti*. Χρη σιγᾶν — κ. τ. λ. We would recommend to his consideration the subjoined anonymous epigram:

" If *silence* be the soul of prayer,
That soul, sweet friend ! embodiest *thou* :
Silent in church, *whenever there*,
Thy thanks, petitions, praise, or vow."

' *Sound the loud Timbrel, o'er Egypt's dark Sea !* We do not hesitate to denominate this poem execrable. Such an undignified *tittupping* style, to celebrate such an event, must be offensive to every person of taste and reflection.

' *For the Lord hath look'd out from his Pillar of Glory.*

Proh pudor !

' *Go, let me weep, there's Bliss in Tears.*' This is a tender song, fitted for the Irish Melodies. "*Hominem sonat ;*" — and we are by no means compelled to exclaim, in allusion to the muse that inspired it, "*Oh DEA certè !*" The last four lines are, however, very *impressive* :

' Leave me to sigh o'er days that flew
More idly than the summer's wind ;
And, while they pass'd, a fragrance threw,
But left no trace of sweets behind.'

Yet why '*sacred* ?' Certainly, (we say again) Mr. M. cannot be serious when he talks of a '*Series*' of '*Sacred Songs*' in this publication.

' *Come not, O Lord !*' This poem is very short, but it seems to us full of faults. For example :

—— '*thy features of fire !*'

This is not the manner in which we ought to talk of such subjects.

' *While Israël bask'd all the night in thy beam.*' The word '*basked*' (if it implies any thing) implies heat as well as light. How wholly foreign from the divine image here intended !

' *Were not the sinful Mary's Tears.*' This offends us very much. Surely, it is wrong to attempt to enhance the value of such penitence, by talking of '*golden hair*' and '*diamonds*' formerly shining in it ! "*Procul, oh procul ! este profani.*" *Vice*, too, is called *error* in this objectionable little poem ; the most objectionable, we think, in the volume. We firmly believe that nothing but what is good is meant by all this : but it is very injudicious, and, to say the least of it, a very indecorous mixture of scriptural records with merely mortal ideas.

We need only quote, in confirmation of the accuracy of our character of these poems, a passage in the song intitled

' *As*

' *As down in the sunless Retreats ;*' which reminds us strongly of our old acquaintance,

" *Down in the meadows, and the shady groves of beech and oak !*"

The lines are these :

' MY GOD ! silent to thee ;
Pure, warm, silent to thee.'

This is *quietism*. This is the spirit which Fénelon refined in France, and which Whitfield vulgarized in England.

The verses '*On the Restoration of the Jews to the Holy Land*' are some of the best in the book, as far as inoffensiveness and good taste can recommend them ; and their safeguard, as on other occasions, has been a faithful adherence to the sacred text. "*Hoc duce, tutus eris.*"

In the '*Chorus of Priests*,' (a daring symphony for the author to imitate !) the line

' Those cherubs, *with their smiling eyes,*'

recalls us again to the earth, or at least sheds an unhallowed Mohammedan glow over our Christian paradise.

Mr. Moore has yet much to learn, and much to unlearn, in the composition of sacred poems. Would he but submit to the preparatory discipline, we know not any living poet so capable of consecrating the glow of classical feeling to the worship of JEHOVAH.

In our criticisms on the poetry of this work, we have, in a great measure, anticipated the remarks which we should make on the musical part of it ; the prevailing fault of which is the want of the sublime character. Accustomed as we have been in this country (at least, according to the practice of our church-establishment) to the association of music displaying a chaste and dignified simplicity with our hymns and sacred songs, we are perhaps scarcely in a condition to relish a change in this respect, even in favour of airs and harmonies which in other situations we deem the most beautiful. With regard to the arrangement of the airs before us, and their accompaniments, we have great room for praise. Though sometimes they display rather too much of the chromatic style, and not always very judiciously applied, yet to a writer who has been employed in studying the works of the great modern masters, especially Beethoven, who is now the most popular of all those masters, something of this fault is almost unavoidable. Of the sixteen pieces in the collection, five are the composition of Sir John Stevenson, and one is by

Mr. Moore: the others are from Martini, Beethoven, Haydn, Mozart, and Avison, except Number I., which (as already noted) is said to have been attributed to the first Mrs. Sheridan. To our taste, this air, and that of Avison for the words '*Weep not for those,*' are the most characteristic and best adapted in the collection. Sir John Stevenson's airs, particularly that which is allotted to '*The Turf shall be my fragrant Shrine,*' are very graceful. Some parts of the air by Mr. Moore are pleasing: but it strikes us that, in the fifth and sixth bars of the second line, page 75., the C's and G have a disagreeable harshness; and that to substitute A's in the fifth bar and D in the sixth would preserve the flow of the air better, and lead more gracefully into the following passage. Haydn's air, adapted to the words '*Oh thou who dry'st the Mourner's Tear,*' should not be passed over. The other pieces do not seem to require any particular remark.

In closing our observations on this work, we would wish to guard against the imputation of any unnecessary stiffness in the opinion which we have felt it our duty to give. It is too much the practice of certain persons in the present age to mix religion with the every-day occurrences of life, and to dress her up in modes and fashions which are very unbecoming. We must be distinctly understood as not imputing the motives of such persons to the author of these poems: but we fear that the tendency of them will be rather to increase the evil of which we complain; and, in fact, to spread it among a class of persons who, though proof against the attempts of a vulgar and tasteless fanaticism, may fall in with that which comes recommended by so much elegant refinement and brilliant imagination.

ART. IX. *An Address to the Philharmonic Society.* By T. D. Worgan, Professor of Music. 8vo. 2s. Wilson. 1819.

WE should be very sorry to find the Philharmonic Society claiming the power and influence which this publication, and those that are connected with Mr. Logier's system of musical education (of which we have all heard so much), impute to it. For the improvement of the practical department of their art, it is impossible not to see that such a society must be eminently calculated; and to form a just estimate of the good which, in this view, is likely to result from it, we need only call to mind some of the names which are enrolled among its members: but, if there be any art or science in which a distinction must be carefully made between

between practice and theory, music is assuredly that art. To acquire consummate excellence in handling a musical instrument is literally the business of a man's life; and it will allow too little leisure for those abstruse inquiries which the study of music, as a science, demands. We rejoice, therefore, to observe that a society of practical musicians, probably equal in excellence to any who ever met to unite their powers "in sweetest harmony," has hitherto refused to be erected into patrons or judges of any system of education; or to prescribe or sanction any mode of producing that perfection which they themselves, who have been taught probably in a great variety of methods, so powerfully exhibit. Accordingly, we find that, when Mr. Worgan presented his proposed work to the Society, and called for their opinion on its merits, a committee, consisting of Sir George Smart, Mr. Atwood, and Mr. Bishop, reported that "they were unanimously of opinion, that for the Philharmonic Society to offer a judgment on it, would not be consistent with the purposes for which the Society is constituted."

Mr. Worgan's present pamphlet comprizes four topics:—
1. Musical Education in general. 2. The general State of Musical Taste and Knowledge in this Country. 3. The Study of Music in Score. 4. On a work by him, now in the course of publication, called "Vocal Sonatinas." In considering these essays, it may be most convenient to begin with the last. The title will strike our readers as whimsical, but expressive; the object of the composition being to take an old familiar tune (most frequently a canon or round), and to shew a great variety of ways in which it may be performed, both vocally and instrumentally; at the same time exhibiting an analysis of its composition, and displaying the rules and terms which it exemplifies. It cannot be denied that such a work may afford much facility in the study of music as a science; and we have no doubt that, to a mere general amateur-performer, a small portion of science is worth a great portion of execution. We therefore think that Mr. Worgan's Vocal Sonatinas may be regarded as an acceptable addition to our stock of music for study.

On the subject of musical education, (that is, of amateurs,) as it now exists, we are willing to admit that considerable improvement might be made: but to us, who (to say the truth) are of opinion that this branch of accomplishment has gone quite far enough, the extent of proficiency which we find in every drawing-room appears a sufficient voucher in favor of the system which has prevailed. When we say

system, however, we commit an inaccuracy; for, in point of fact, every professor and teacher of this, as of all other arts and sciences, has a method of his own, though they agree in general points; and, we believe, Mr. Worgan will find that not a few of them have been long in the habit of employing means very similar to those which he considers as so pre-eminently efficacious.

With regard to the state of musical taste in England, it has perhaps as desirable a character at present as it ever possessed in any country. We are aware that considerable allowance must be made for fashion, and in what art is this not requisite?—and that much which is very worthless is daily acquiring celebrity from causes altogether foreign to its real pretensions. Have we not, however, for some years past, discarded the paltry, vulgar, Vauxhall stuff that was in vogue scarcely a generation ago; and is it not a fact that our music-stands and piano-fortes are every where covered with the works of those great masters who, by the consent of all the world, (professors and non-professors,) have carried the art to the highest pitch of excellence? Is not Handel as much admired as ever; and has he lost any thing by being associated with Haydn and Mozart?

The study of music in score is, in fact, the foundation-topical of Mr. Worgan's Address; and we go a great way with him on this point. This branch of science might, certainly, be more generally cultivated among amateurs, and could not fail to produce a more pleasant description of proficiency than the style of brilliant execution which has of late usurped its place. We have, however, seen some very honourable exceptions to this remark; and we know that several professors have long been in the habit of teaching thorough bass and composition as a part of the most ordinary course of musical instruction. Still, it must be remembered that it is the dullest department of the study for the scholar; and that, of all those who are daily and hourly doomed to the drudgery of a harpsichord or piano to please the vanity of their parents, or to keep pace with the attainments of others, very, very few indeed sit down to the labour with a spirit and taste strong enough to induce them to apply to the heavier parts of it with any good effect: to say nothing of the necessity of a certain portion of intellect which the study requires. In the following remarks we heartily concur, and with them we must close our notice of this publication.

I should be very unwilling to subject myself to the imputation of injustice, or insensibility to the extraordinary excellences
of

of modern composition, or to that of an exclusive preference for ancient simplicity. Yet I must confess, I think it is to be feared, that when a sight of that simplicity is totally lost, it is in danger of being totally forgotten; and I leave it to you, Gentlemen, to determine, what must result from that epicurism of taste, which can only be excited by extraordinary modulation, or brilliant execution; but is dead to that sublimity, of which simplicity is the very essence. It is to that difficult simplicity, if I may so term it, sometimes produced by the composer, and sometimes by the performer; that I suppose Mr. Shield alludes, in his treatise, when he quotes the apophthegm of a great master; that "it is more difficult to play two notes than two thousand." With two notes, we know that Handel, in his opening to the Te Deum, wielded the thunder of an orchestra. Rousseau is said to have composed an air on three notes, and Purcel worked, in the most masterly manner, on the simplest grounds. Such is the groundwork of many compositions, in the publication I have sent you, for instance of those which I jocosely term national melodies, of which the MS. in score is one, founded on three notes; and however puerile many of these compositions may seem, it may be maintained, that any regular composition in three or four parts, however short, or to whatever words it may be set, is in reality only nominally puerile. A miniature, or gem, can lay no claim to grandeur of design, or profusion of excellence; but may nevertheless be admirably conceived, and exquisitely finished; and a judicious collection of canons, rounds, madrigals, glees, and such brief effusions of harmony, present a rich and comprehensive view of transcendent excellence in musical composition. Something too may be said in favour of short, light, and humorous compositions. Not only children, but a large portion of the musical world, may be attracted by the appearance of levity, and the reality of variety, to the performance and examination of classic excellence, from which, in elaborate compositions, they would shrink with affright. Every legitimate attempt to strew the path of science with flowers, is at least harmless, if not commendable; and, I trust, there is nothing in mine that tends to seduce the pupil from proper and classical instruction. I am sure my intentions have a very different tendency.'

The style of this pamphlet is plain and good.

ART. X. *Memoirs of the Life of Anthony Benezet*; by Roberts Vaux. Printed at Philadelphia, and re-printed at York. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Co. London.

THE Society of Friends has produced many philanthropists, but perhaps no one superior to the subject of these memoirs in activity and ardour of benevolence, for he seems to have considered himself as born to no other end

than to exercise his faculties for the good of others. The alleviation of human suffering under some of its complicated forms was the constant object of his exertions; and to it he devoted his time, his pen, his purse, all the powers of his body, and all the faculties of his mind. As a member of the Society of Friends, he was by principle an enemy to war and a counsellor of peace. Indeed, what can be more incompatible than the vengeance of war and the genius of Christianity; and, though Anthony Benezet may have proceeded farther than reason or the present circumstances of human life will allow, in the reprobation of even *defensive* warfare, yet, if he erred in this respect, he erred from the most praiseworthy feelings, and at least with the letter of Christianity on his side.

‘The dreadful effects of war,’ says the author of his life, p. 62., ‘upon nations and individuals, deeply grieved his susceptible heart. He wrote and distributed essays, deprecating that inhuman practice; persuading mankind, with a holy ardour, to desist from such things as were calculated to inflame the passions, and produce those wrathful tempers, that could be appeased only by embruing the hands of brethren in each other’s blood. On this account, he addressed an energetic and pathetic letter to Frederick King of Prussia.’

The most distinguishing feature, however, in the philanthropic efforts of Benezet, was the zeal with which he endeavoured to impress mankind with a horror of the slave-trade, and to prepare the way for its total abolition. In this field of humanity he was the first labourer; and, at the great day of account, when the share, which different individuals had in accomplishing that truly good and glorious work shall be appropriated to each, no small portion will be found to belong to Anthony Benezet. He first raised the voice of Mercy against this iniquitous traffic in human flesh, and conceived the project of emancipating the enslaved African. ‘About the year 1750,’ says Mr. Roberts Vaux, ‘it began to be observed that his feelings were deeply affected with the iniquity of the slave-trade, the unlawfulness of carrying negroes into captivity, and the cruelty which was exercised by those who purchased and employed them.’ (P. 27.)

Though Mr. Benezet was at this time busily occupied in teaching a school at Philadelphia for his subsistence, he did not hesitate to establish an evening-school for the benefit of the numerous negroes who were then in that city, and whom he himself gratuitously instructed.

‘In this charitable work he was successful beyond his own expectation; for the proficiency of his pupils in the rudiments of learning,

learning, added to the moral and religious advancement of many of them under his pious care, powerfully contributed to recommend their race to the notice, and the cause of their sufferings to the investigation, of many persons of influence, who had previously held both in contempt.

‘ Among other important facts concerning the dispositions and mental capacities of the negroes, which his intercourse with them as a teacher had afforded him the best opportunity to establish, was that they possessed intellectual powers by no means inferior to any other portion of mankind.’ —

“ *I can,*” said Benezet, “ *with truth and sincerity declare that I have found among the negroes as great variety of talents as among a like number of whites; and I am bold to assert that the notion entertained by some, that the blacks are inferior in their capacities, is a vulgar prejudice, founded on the pride or ignorance of their lordly masters; who have kept their slaves at such a distance, as to be unable to form a right judgment of them.*”

The above-mentioned writings gave the primary impulse to the generous efforts which were subsequently made for the abolition of this nefarious traffic: they kindled the flame which glowed in the bosom of Clarkson and of Wilberforce, and furnished the first materials for the elucidation of the important subject. Though Anthony Benezet has other claims to our regard, this alone is sufficient to intitle him to a high rank among the benefactors of his species. — We cannot refrain from quoting a letter from this amiable and enlightened philanthropist to the Abbé Raynal; which forcibly characterizes the benevolence that habitually animated his breast, and shews what a just criterion he had formed of human excellence.

“ *Philadelphia, 7th Month, 16th, 1781.*

“ *My friend Abbé Raynal,*

“ From the idea which I conceived of the justice and generosity of thy sentiments, I took the liberty of writing to thee, about seven or eight months past, under cover of my friend Benjamin Franklin, and likewise by J—— B——, who, we are afraid, was lost on his passage. Having received no answer by several vessels, nor knowing whether my letters reached thee, or whether thine miscarried, and a good opportunity offering by my friend Dr. Griffiths, I now seize it to send thee two copies of a small extract of origin and principles of my brethren the Quakers; whom, I observe in such of thy writings as have come to our hands, thou didst not think unworthy of thy attention.

‘ I have nothing to add to what I have already written thee; but shall repeat my wish of saluting thee affectionately, on the principles of reason and humanity, which constitute that grand circle of love and charity, not confined by our parentage or country, but which affectionately embraces the whole creation; earnestly

earnestly desiring, to the utmost of *my abilities, to promote the happiness of all men, even of my enemies themselves, could I have any.* I beseech God to give thee strength that thou mayest continue to hold up to mankind, thy brethren, principles tending to replenish their hearts with goodness, friendship, and charity, towards each other, that thus thou mayest, to the utmost of thy power, render men reasonable, useful, and consequently happy; and more especially that thou mayest combat that false principle of honour, or rather of intolerable pride and folly, which so strongly prevails in our nation, where the most indolent, and the least useful, fancy themselves and are reputed the most noble. Let us endeavour to make them sensible that men are noble only in an exact proportion with their being rational.

“ The happiness which is to be found in virtue alone is sought for by men through the titles acquired by their fathers, for their activity in those wars which have desolated the world; or in the wealth accumulated by their ancestors; both means generally unjust and oppressive, and consequently rather sources of shame and humiliation. For as the Chinese philosopher well observes, *‘ There is scarcely one rich man out of a hundred who was not himself an oppressor, or the son of an oppressor.’*

“ Let us display to Princes, and the rulers of nations, the example of Numa Pompilius, who, by a conduct opposite to that of Romulus, his predecessor, and most of his successors, rendered the Romans, during his long reign, so respectable and happy. Above all, my dear friend, let us represent to our compatriots, the abominable iniquity of the Guinea trade. Let us put to the blush the pretended disciples of the benign Saviour of the world, for the encouragement given to the unhappy Africans in invading the liberty of their own brethren. Let us rise, and rise with energy, against the corruption introduced into the principles and manners of the masters and owners of slaves, by a conduct so contrary to humanity, reason, and religion. Let us be still more vehement in representing its baneful influence on the principles and manners of their wretched offspring, necessarily educated in idleness, pride, and all the vices to which human nature is liable.

“ How desirable is it that Lewis the XVIth, whose virtues and good disposition have been so nobly praised, would set an example to the other potentates of Europe, by forbidding his subjects to be concerned in a traffic so evil in itself, and so corrupting in its consequences; and that he would also issue out ordinances in favour of such of the negroes as are now slaves in his dominions. Alas! should Christianity, that law of love and charity, work its proper effect on the hearts of its pretended disciples, we should see numbers of Christians traverse Africa and both the Indies, not to pollute themselves with slavery and slaughter, nor to accumulate wealth, the supreme wish of the present nominal Christians; but that Divine love would impel them to visit remote regions, in order to make the inhabitants acquainted with the corruption of the human heart, and invite them to seek for the influence of that grace proposed by the Gospel, by which they may obtain salvation.

tion. I am under the necessity of concluding hastily, requesting thou wouldst excuse faults, which time does not allow me to correct, and write to me by various opportunities, the vessels bound to these parts often missing their destination.

“ I am affectionately thy friend,

“ ANTHONY BENEZET.”

This truly good man, a native of France, terminated a life of the most unsullied piety and beneficence, in May, 1784, at the age of seventy-one. Mr. Roberts Vaux, who is the author of these memoirs, complains of the scantiness of his materials: but he does not appear to have made the best use even of those which he possessed, since a more lucid arrangement might surely have been adopted. The virtues of Mr. Benezet, however, were of such a nature that a confused and imperfect narrative cannot obscure their excellence; and we earnestly recommend the perusal of the work, because we think that many may profit by an imitation of his character.

ART. XI. *European Commerce*; or Complete Mercantile Guide to the Continent of Europe; comprizing an Account of the Trade of all the principal Cities of the Continent, copious Tables of their Monies, Exchanges, Weights, and Measures, with their Proportions to those of England, the Local Regulations of each Place, their Tariffs or Duties, Methods of buying and selling, Tares and other Allowances; together with numerous Official Documents, Ordinances, &c. forming a complete Code of Commercial Information. By C. W. Rördansz. 8vo. pp. 730. 1l. 1s. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

AMONG our various publications on commercial topics, we have hitherto had none that corresponded properly with the title of Mr. Rördansz's work: Dr. Kelly's *Cambist* (reported in our Number for November, 1811,) treating more particularly of exchanges, and bearing reference to a state of things which has since undergone considerable alteration; and Ricard's *Manuel de Commerce*, though in its time useful, being by much too prolix, and full of long disquisitions. The object of the present compilation is to exhibit a short account of the mode of carrying on trade in the different parts of the Continent, a list of the existing duties on imports and exports, and an account of monies, exchanges, weights, and measures. Mr. R. having been called abroad on business before he had given a finish to his MS., that task devolved, we are informed in the preface, on Mr. Lloyd, who was long resident at *Hamburgh*, and whose account of the
distresses

distresses experienced by that city, when occupied by Marshal Davout, we noticed in our Number for January, 1814.

The continent of Europe is here treated in three great divisions; the northern, the central, and the southern. The first comprehends Russia, Poland, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark: the second, Germany, the Netherlands, and Switzerland: the third, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Turkey. Maritime towns, such as Riga, Dantzic, and Amsterdam, are described at considerable length: but to inland-towns a smaller space is allotted. The editor has the merit of giving information of very recent date; and, instead of relying on printed works, he takes pains to lay before his readers lists of the amount of exports and imports at the principal harbours of Europe, from statements communicated by correspondents on the spot. We thus learn that the number of vessels, great and small, which entered in the year 1817 at several of the chief ports of the Continent, was as follows:

Amsterdam	-	-	3077	Königsberg	-	-	670
Rotterdam	-	-	1731	Pillau, the harbour of do.			1096
Antwerp	-	-	999	Memel	-	-	460
Hamburgh	-	-	1640	Taganrog, on the Euxine,			
Bremen and Elsfleth (its				(near Asoph)	-	-	400
Port on the Weser)	-		800				

We shall specify the different flags in the case of Hamburgh, that port being well adapted to exhibit a view of the proportional commerce of the several countries of Europe.

Vessels arrived at Hamburgh in 1817.

From Great Britain	-	589	Brought up	-	1452
the Baltic	-	239	From the West Indies		30
the Netherlands		178	Archangel	-	22
Denmark	-	112	Greenland	-	13
Portugal	-	92	the East Indies	-	6
the Mediterranean		85	the Weser, East		
France	-	73	Friesland, and		
Sweden	-	47	all other parts		117
the United States		37			
		<hr/>			<hr/>
Carry up	-	1452	Total	-	1640
		<hr/>			<hr/>

It is gratifying to an English reader to observe the large proportion of the vessels of our country, both in the above and in the following more comprehensive list:

Ships

Ships that passed through the Sound into the Baltic in 1817.

British	-	-	2088	Brought up	-	5667
Swedish	-	-	1044	Mecklenburg, Ham-		
Norwegian	-	-	470	burgh, and Bremen	434	
Prussian (Dantzick, Königsberg, &c.)	-	-	917	Russian	-	197
Dutch	-	-	695	American	-	68
Danish	-	-	463	French	-	22
German, viz. Hanover,				Other Nations	-	360
						<hr/>
				Total	-	6758
						<hr/>
Carry up	-		5667			
			<hr/>			

The Swedish vessels approach the nearest to ours in number: but they are in general small, a part of them being coasters; and moreover, with regard to these, as in the case of the Prussian ships, the above numbers represent almost the whole foreign commerce of the country, since few of the vessels of either can reach the ocean without passing through the Sound; Prussia having no great sea-port on the outside of the Baltic, and Sweden none except Gottenburg. Under the Hanoverian flag, are comprized vessels from Embden and the newly acquired territory of East Friesland. French navigation, limited as it is in most directions, is particularly diminished in that of the Baltic.

The antiquated notions of exclusive trade which still exist in certain parts of the Continent are by no means favourable to a free extension of maritime intercourse. Russia, though friendly to us in a political sense, has chosen (p. 33.) to revive the old statutes of Finland, by which it was prohibited to import into that country any articles that were not of the growth or manufacture to which the vessel belonged that brought them; that is, a British ship cannot land in that country a consignment of American cotton or French wines, under pain of forfeiture of ship and cargo. This is a singular imitation of our navigation-laws: but one still more remarkable is afforded in the case of Sweden; where timber, when exported in vessels not Swedish, is subject to an extra-duty, although vast quantities of it perish annually from decay: the various tracts of forest in that country containing an extent of 10,000 square miles, of which not one-fiftieth part is cleared by the yearly export. Of Norway, also, the chief wealth is in timber; and Christiania, which is now, instead of Bergen, the capital of that kingdom, is almost entirely supported by that branch of trade.

Trade

Trade of Russia. — It is usual with authors, as with coffee-house politicians, to indulge in magnificent estimates when speaking of the strength of the Russian empire: but the charge of miscalculation is applicable rather to its present than its future state; for no country, at least no continental country, is possessed of greater natural advantages. On the map, her territory seems almost inaccessible to navigation; the vast tract extending from the Baltic to the Euxine appearing very slightly intersected by rivers: but almost all that region is extremely level, and will admit the introduction of canals in all their variety of size and direction. Already some progress has been made in uniting the chief rivers; the canal of Vishney Volotschek joining the Neva with the Wolga, and thus establishing a kind of water-communication between the Baltic and the Caspian; — a communication that is circuitous indeed, and as yet of no great importance in so wide a field, but constituting a fair beginning of those extensive excavations of canals, which, now that peace is the system of the Russian government, may be prosecuted with all the aid of machinery, and all the benefit resulting from the example of England. Meantime, the rigour of the long Russian winter is made subservient to the prompt conveyance of merchandise, and large quantities of goods are driven on sledges to the sea-ports on the Baltic.

Of all examples of recent increase of trade, the most rapid, at least on the continent of Europe, has been exhibited in the case of Odessa; a town situated on a bay of the Euxine, 30 miles distant from the mouth of the Dniester, and 60 from that of the Dnieper. This bay is of great depth, and consequently seldom closed by frost; advantages which, twenty-five years ago, attracted the attention of the Russian government, and induced it to render Odessa a great *entrepôt*. In 1794, the place consisted of only a few houses: in 1795, the first year of its traffic, 35 small vessels arrived; in 1796, 87; in 1803, above 500. The population now amounted to 15,000, and were so fortunate as to be under the government of the Duke de Richelieu, at that time an emigrant, and lately prime-minister of France. The great source of its prosperity is in the vicinity of the two great rivers, the Dnieper and Dniester, by which are brought to it from the Ukraine vast quantities of corn, hemp, tallow, iron, and sail-cloth. The commerce of the place thus continued to increase, and in 1816 it received 846 ships of burden, and 1400 barks: the former being under the following flags:

Russian

			Vessels.		Seamen.
Russian	-	-	407	manned by	8135
British	-	-	258	-	4176
Austrian (viz. Trieste, Fiume, and the rest of Dalmatia)	-	-	101	-	1568
Turkish (chiefly Greek vessels)	-	-	23	-	837
French	-	-	25	-	401
Swedish	-	-	15	-	64
Other countries	-	-	17	-	110
			<hr/> 846		<hr/> 15,291

The value of the annual exports from Odessa is at present between two and three millions sterling.

When the moat which is intended to surround the town shall be finished, and means are thus afforded to prevent the illicit conveyance of goods into the interior, the port will be declared free; that is, all goods may be landed and warehoused there, as in our docks, without paying duty until taken out for home-consumption.

What a contrast to this rapid increase is presented by Sardinia; an island naturally fertile, and admirably situated for the commerce of the Mediterranean, yet occupied by so rude a population that no foreigner can venture into the interior without an armed escort, and even the inhabitants of the capital must be cautious how they extend their excursions. Corn and vines are the chief or almost the only objects of culture; the wheat, particularly, is very good, and provisions are cheaper than in most other parts of the Mediterranean: the imports are of very limited amount, but exactly such articles (superfine cloth, linen, hard-ware, and groceries) as it would suit us to furnish. In fact, when contemplating the wide field that might still be opened in this as in other parts of Europe, to our manufacturing industry, we cannot too much lament that it should have been so long closed to it by war and its ruinous consequences. This remark is applicable with equal force to the far-famed peninsula of the Morea, or ancient Peloponnesus: its products, currants, cotton, and olive-oil, are already considerable, and might easily be multiplied; and, though the poverty of the people prevents them from buying largely of our manufactures, the case would be very different if their cultivation were extended.

In taking leave of Mr. Rördansz, and of Mr. Lloyd, his successor in the task of editing, we have merely to express a favourable opinion of the compilation, and in particular of the recency of the statements; coupled with the wish that a second

edition

edition may contain a farther stock of information from continental correspondents, and be exempt from certain errors, such as p. 573., the *Po* for the *Tiber*; p. 601., *Veneria* for *Venezia*, &c. The size of the type, in what is properly the text of the book, seems unnecessarily large.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR DECEMBER, 1819.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 12. *More Broad Grins, or Mirth versus Melancholy.* Small 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Lowndes. 1819.

These, surely, are not 'Grins' from the mouth which compelled us to catch the contagion of laughter some years ago: or, if they should, strangely, prove to be so, the author has lost his *biting* humour, and

"Grins horribly a ghastly grin,"

without any of the effective *grinders* which he displayed before.

We do not assert, however, that this little *jeu d'esprit* is devoid of occasional flashes of fun and merriment. For one instance, we may mention the Frenchman who ordered "*Vat you please*" for dinner at a coffee-house, and declined payment on the terms of his engagement. The good-humoured landlord forgave the Frenchman for his readiness, his drollery, — and his poverty: but his companion being told of the success of the trick, and endeavouring to repeat it, Bonniface thought that, having dressed a goose *gratis* for the former, he would give the latter a dressing *gratis* of a different nature:

'There is a kind of instrument
Which greatly helps a serious argument,
And which, when properly applied, occasions
Some most unpleasant tickling sensations!
'Twould make more clumsy folks than Frenchmen skip;
'Twould *strike* you presently, — a stout horse-whip!
This instrument our *maitre d'hôte*
Most carefully conceal'd beneath his coat,
And, seeking instantly the Frenchman's station,
Address'd him with the usual salutation.

'Our Frenchman, bowing to his thread-bare knees,
Determin'd whilst the iron's hot to strike it,
Pat with his lesson answers — "*Vat you please!*"
But scarcely had he let the sentence slip,
Than round his shoulders twines the pliant whip!

"Sare, Sare! ah, *misericorde! parbleu!*

Got d—m, Monsieur! vat make you use me so?

Vat call you dis?" — "Lord, don't you know?

That's what I please, (says Bonny,) how d'ye like it? —

Your friend, altho' I paid dear for his funning,
 Deserv'd the goose he gain'd, Sir, for his cunning ;
 But you, Monsieur, or else my time I'm wasting,
 Are goose enough — and only wanted *basting* !”

Next we may instance the bookseller, who thus addresses the

“ My friend, I've read your poem with attention :

'Tis not correct,

A great defect !

The nouns are in the wrong declension.

“ Observe the verbs,

As thick as herbs ;

All active, where they should be neuter :

Your verses, how they limp and stammer !

Sure, by this specimen of grammar,

The *bellman* must have been your tutor !

But still I've labour'd all I can,

And swore 'twas written by a learned man.”

If this is in *keeping*, and, no doubt, a scene exhibited daily in metropolis: but the largest portion of the volume is dull, and even enlivened by its occasional *ambiguity of allusion*. We do like to condemn these excrescences too severely, as *puritanism* : *præmium for pruriency* : but we do wish that witty authors should recollect that, although indecency does not destroy wit, equally far from conferring it.

13. *The Anglo-Cambrian* ; a Poem in Four Cantos. By . Linwood. 8vo. pp. 94. 5s. sewed. Longman and Co. The eternal re-production of unread poems is one of the peculiar features of the present æra. Things undistinguished by faultily, by energy or excellence, from their myriads of mawkish temporaries, are in every season issued from the press ; and, “*dark*” but not “*light*” as the leaves in Vallombrosa, they strew counters of the London booksellers. That the *Anglo-Cambrian* no way raised above his brethren, let the following extract testify :

‘ Now o’er th’ expanse of heav’n the sun unfurl’d

His blazing signal to the “ one half world,”

For action, energy, and enterprize.

For this his bow the youthful archer tries,

To this the lance returns a flickering beam,

The helmet answers with a broader gleam,

And warriors gathering now from every tent,

On every dread preparative are bent.

Each movement Edgar’s rambling eye partakes,

His foot the slumb’ring dew-bell scarce awakes.

So swift his progress to the peopled square,

For England’s warlike youth assembled there,

All vie his humble mission to present,

And bring glad summons to the council tent.

They treat of homage, tribute yet unpaid,
Of promis'd treaties, long and oft delayed :
Dark treasonous matter is before them spread,
O'er this each warrior stoops th' inquiring head,
Llewelyn's provocations to review,
And fix of Cambrian lands their monarchs' due.'

Χρη σιγᾶν, ἢ κρυσσῶσα σιγῆς λεγῶν

we must for ever admonish our countrymen.

Art. 14. *The Steward ; or Fashion and Feeling : A Comedy*, in Five Acts, (founded upon the *Deserted Daughter*,) as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden, September 15th, 1819. 8vo. 3s. Lowndes.

"The *Deserted Daughter*," on which this play is founded, was a comedy written by Mr. Holcroft, and was noticed by us in vol. xvii., p. 189. It contained some scenes against which the good taste as well as the delicacy of the present day would revolt ; and yet it was thought to manifest too much excellence to allow it to be wholly lost. The play has therefore been in some measure remodelled ; the objectionable part of the plot has been removed ; and some of the other scenes and characters have been varied, with the view of improving the general effect : but it is by no means an agreeable composition, owing probably to its want of nature.

Art. 15. *A short Reign, and a merry One.* A Petite-Comedy, in Two Acts, (taken from the French,) first performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden, November 19th, 1819. By John Poole, Esq. Author of "*Hamlet Travestie*," "*Intrigue*," "*Who's Who?*" &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Miller.

The epithets used in this title may be applied to the farce itself. It is *short*, and it is *merry*. Who then can object to it ? — To explain the plot would render our article *long* and *dull*. Who then can wish for it ?

Art. 16. *Revenge ; or the Novice of San Martino.* A Tragedy. By Major Brook Bridges Parlby, of the Honourable East-India Company's Service. 8vo. pp. 112. Black and Co.

Parnassus is not in the East, properly so called ; and, consequently, the Major, now before us as a tragic poet, although resident in the East, has not discovered the mountain in question. Seriously, we hardly ever saw a more entire dramatic failure than the present effort. We cannot keep our readers in suspense as to the justice of so unpleasant a sentence ; and, therefore, we must immediately select a specimen.

A lady, newly admitted into a convent, receives a letter from her lover, and drops it most unluckily where a neighbouring abbot picks it up.

' *Father Angelo.* — *Olivia.*

' *Ang.* Release me, — I will not, — must not, hear you. Where is the Prioress ? — Lady, where are you.

[*The door opens, and the Prioress, Emilia, and several Nuns enter with lights.*

Oliv. Cruel ! unfeeling man !

[*She lets go his robe, and throws herself on the ground.*

Prio. What rash intruder dares to interrupt
silent course of night with noise unseemly ?
er, I cry your mercy. — Olivia here ! —

Ang.) Had it been ought but you, the place, the time,
it have given rise to foul-mouthed slander.

Ang. Lady, 'twere meet I briefly do explain.
holy calling hath imposed a duty,
will I shrink from its fulfilment.

ere I walk'd, so oft I'm wont at even,
ious exercises bent, (then best perform'd
n closely veil'd from all impure beholders,)
wayward maiden cross'd my thoughtful steps.
t time we parlied ; when, as she retired,
paper (justice o'ertake its author) from her fell.
em'd it haply from some kinsfolk greeting ;
called her back, as courtesy demanded,
truant to restore ; when, on the instant,
i sudden shriek, and terror-speaking eye,
cried, " 'Tis mine ! for pity's sake restore it."

I judg'd such strange emotion
harbinger of hidden guilt, did, as my office fits,
use the writing. — 'Twill unfold the rest. —

[*Reads the letter to the Prioress. While reading it, she
clasps her hands, stamps, and then runs to Olivia,
pointing with her finger as she lies prostrate on the
ground.*']

ie ready insinuation of the Prioress, ' Had it been ought but
' &c. cannot escape the *tragic* reader.

ie songs are most polished and original. Witness the fol-
g :

‘ What have we to do with Fame,
Soon lost, obtained with trouble ;
Glory's but a sounding name,
And honor's but a bubble.
Crowns ambition strives to find
I value not a jot ;
Nor the mantling wreaths that bind
The forehead of the sot.

‘ From the niggard grasp of Time
Snatch the moments as they pass ;
Pluck the flow'ret in its prime,
Beauty's fading as the grass.
Give me wanton dimpled smile,
Throbbing pulse and roving eye,
Venus, laughing all the while,
Tune my soul to harmony.'

POLITICS.

Art. 17. *A Warning Letter to His Royal Highness the Prince Regent*, intended principally as a Call upon the Middle Ranks, at this important Crisis. By the Rev. Lionel Thomas Berguer. The Third Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Allman. 1819.

Art. 18. *A Second Warning Letter, &c. &c.* By the Rev. Lionel Thomas Berguer, late of St. Mary Hall, Oxford. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Allman.

It is certainly an uncommon circumstance when a clergyman of the Establishment addresses his Prince in the bold language of these letters; and the public will perhaps peruse the pamphlets with more interest, than they would feel in the productions of any of their lay-brethren. Independently of this attraction, the nervousness of the style, and the force with which the perilous situation of the country is placed before the reader's eyes, will command attention; while the respectful deference, with which the writer addresses his royal correspondent, and the disgust with which he speaks of the *Radicals* and of their levelling and revolutionary sentiments, will satisfy the unprejudiced that his occasional boldness does not arise from democratical insolence, and that his loudly expressed fears are not wholly unfounded.

Mr. B. gives an alarming description of the state of the Radical Press, and of the poisonous effects which it produces on an hourly extending class of people; forcibly arguing that the horrible doctrines of blasphemy, treason, assassination, and anarchy, which its publications openly advocate, ought not to remain unheeded. Then comes the difficult question—how to meet the impending danger! Mr. Berguer recommends, in his first letter, the dismissal of the ministers, ‘the Jonases of the political storm,’ and ‘the most signal justice’ in regard to the late unfortunate events. Then, he thinks, would the middle ranks come forwards, and, by throwing themselves into the opposite scale, with their overwhelming preponderance, would unnerve the arm of the Radical Monster, in withdrawing from its influence the mistaken and easily led multitude which it deludes.

The events which have occurred since the publication of the first letter, namely, the removal of Lord Fitzwilliam, and the augmentation of the army, render Mr. Berguer's language more warm and energetic in his second address, and induce him to enter more minutely into the remedial acts which he would recommend. Should the ministers *not* surrender the management of the helm of government into other hands, Mr. B. suggests a new bill of rights to be offered by the Prince to the people: ‘*A distinct recognition from the throne of the indefeasible rights of ENGLISHMEN, in these alarming times of invaded liberties and insulted laws: and a new RATIFICATION of all those codes, charters, and bills, by which we hold such indefeasible privileges, under the SIGN MANUAL of your Royal Highness.*’

However serious the crisis may be, we think that this is but a visionary remedy; and we have not a much better opinion of the benefits likely to be derived from the election by ballot which

Mr. B. would introduce in the system of reform which he recommends in his postscript. That the period of some reform in our representation is not now far distant, we may perhaps venture to predict: the ground has been a long time in preparation; and the prudent and constitutional measures, which its more discreet advocates are pursuing in Parliament, will make its progress gradual but certain.

Art. 19. (No. I.) *A Short Reply to a Short Defence of the Whigs*, which will shortly prove the Imputations cast upon them during the late Election to be founded in Truth; being a Short Review of their Political Conduct from 1688 to the present Time. In short, a complete Refutation of the Arguments of a Noble and learned Lord. By Carolus Candidus. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lowndes.

Art. 20. (No. II.) *Reply to Lord Erskine*. By an Elector of Westminster. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hone.

Art. 21. (No. III.) *A Letter by Thomas Lord Erskine to "An Elector of Westminster,"* Author of a Reply to the "Short Defence of the Whigs." 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

Art. 22. (No. IV.) *A Defence of the People*, in Reply to Lord Erskine's Two Defences of the Whigs. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Stodart.

Art. 23. (No. V.) *The Defences of the Whigs*. A new Edition. With a Preface. By Thomas Lord Erskine. 8vo. 4s. Ridgway.

Art. 24. (No. VI.) *A Trifling Mistake in Thomas Lord Erskine's Recent Preface*, shortly noticed and respectfully corrected, in a Letter to his Lordship, by the Author of the "Defence of the People." 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stodart.

In our Number for March last, we gave an account of Lord Erskine's first publication in this controversy, which has since called forth the pamphlets mentioned at the head of this article. Our views of the question were then stated; and they are not altered, but confirmed and strengthened by subsequent events. We shall not re-state them: nor will various reasons permit us to enter minutely into the discussion as it now stands, extended by the exertions of the combatants, empoisoned by virulence and personality, and even endangered by the actual circumstances of the times and situation of the press. — The pamphlet No. I. is indeed too slight a view of the subject to require much notice. The other tracts, not written by Lord E., are known to be the productions of Mr. Hobhouse*, the late candidate for Westminster. This gentleman is by no means a stranger to our readers as a labourer in the fields of literature, independently of the field of politics; and in the latter arena he has now shewn himself to be a very able and a very bold combatant. He seems not only ready to "court the bubble reputation in the cannon's mouth," but to

* We believe that we may include No. II. in this statement.

welcome it from within the walls of a prison: to which his unrestricted vituperation of the House of Commons, in a part of his pamphlet marked by us No. VI., has for the present consigned him; and whence he perhaps expects that he shall, and we deem it very probable that he will, emerge with an increase of his popular credit. He certainly is an antagonist by no means to be slighted; and, as in one of his allusions he introduces the actions and language of a boxer, we may so far copy his example as to call him "*a troublesome customer.*" We prefer, however, our more usual phraseology, and do not scruple to add that his promptitude of reply, his fluency of expression, and his intrepidity of conduct, are illustrated by the reading of a well informed gentleman, and enforced by the recollections of a scholar. He has not, however, always written in the *courteous spirit of a gentleman*; and, though he may have had some provocation, he feels the necessity of attempting to excuse his occasional infraction of the rules of politeness. Lord Erskine was disposed to treat him, though an anonymous writer, as a gentleman; and we cannot admit that his Lordship's use of some strong expressions, which Mr. H. specifies and reprobates, can justify him in apostrophizing Lord E. as a 'silly man,' (*Defence of the People*, p. 130.); or in treating him on the score of age with that sarcasm and reproach, which are the reverse of the behaviour so generally required towards grey hairs, and are far from being forfeited by his Lordship on this occasion.

The materials of Mr. H.'s pamphlets are a review of the conduct of the Whigs from the Revolution to the present time, with almost total condemnation of all their proceedings, in opposition to Lord E.'s representation of the same events during that period; and a discussion of the late election for Westminster, in which Mr. H. and his avowed friends, the *Radicals*; or the *Rabble*, were so much concerned. As we have already stated, we do not mean to mix in these conflicts: but we cannot refrain from a remark or two. Since Mr. H. is so inveterate a foe to the Tories in place, and to the Whigs out of place, does he "despair of the republic?" or to whom does he look for its preservation? To *his party*? To '*the Rabble*?' Are we, then, to expect nothing but from the interposition of the multitude, and the action of tumult and force? and are we to *look for him* at the head of the array, riding in the whirlwind and directing the storm? He cannot be contented with a less conspicuous station, nor likely to occupy one of inferior rank: he might shine in any sphere, but here he would be "*velut inter ignes Luna minores.*"

We may (as before) borrow two or three passages from Lord Erskine, as historical illustrations of the Grey and Grenville administration.

'You charge us "with having made Lord Grenville the auditor of his own accounts!" as if it had been a corrupt contrivance to enable him to defraud the revenue—which you know to be totally unfounded. Lord Grenville had been the Auditor of the Exchequer, as the reward of public service, very long before the period of the administration in question.—When it was thought

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advantageous to the government of the country, that he should be placed at the head of the Treasury, was it either fair or reasonable; that he should be deprived of an office held for life, when his emoluments, taken together, after his appointment to the Treasury, were not greater than ought to belong to the prime-minister of the British empire? An arrangement was therefore made for the substitution of an equally secure and responsible audit for the public accounts, subject in no manner to his control.' —

'The admission of Lord Ellenborough into the cabinet (if blame can be attached to it) applies so much more to myself than to any member of the administration, that I ought not to pass it over in silence; as, of all others, I ought certainly to have been the most jealous of any departure from that sacred principle of judicial independence, which is the greatest security to the public freedom. Such an appointment, therefore, it was your privilege to question; but your objection would have come with more force, if you had discussed it with decency and temper; because, however I may be considered responsible in my character for my share in this transaction, you could not surely expect, after my past life, to convict me by a dash of your pen, in the judgment of my country, "of a manifest hatred of liberty — the hatred of a free press; the endeavour to destroy both; the taking strides towards arbitrary power," &c. &c. I have only turned your own words into the singular number, that I might take the whole offence upon myself.

'I am not aware that there is any legal distinction between the *general* Privy Council, and the *select* Cabinet Council of the King. When the matter was debated in the House of Lords, it could not be shown, that there was any to be found: and Lord Ellenborough was already a privy-counsellor, summoned and consulted, as all Chief Justices of the King's Bench, and sometimes of the Common Pleas, also, had been for many years past, regarding prosecutions for treason, and other offences against the safety of the State. His introduction, therefore, into the Cabinet, could not place him, in the respect you complain of, in any new situation; since state prosecutions, as I have just observed, are often considered in the Privy Council, but not in the Cabinet, which, as a matter of course, would refer such questions to that tribunal where the law officers of the Crown are in attendance, and in which Chief Justices, as members of it, have, for more than a century, on many such occasions, been consulted. Had this not been established by such a long and uninterrupted usage, with the full knowledge of, and, in some cases, with the participation of Parliament, Lord Ellenborough could never have been proposed as a member of the Cabinet; and if he had, it would have been most especially for myself, above all others, to have objected to it, and rather to have resigned my office, than have submitted to his introduction. — But a distinction between the Privy Council and the Cabinet, in any thing connected with the independence of the judicial functions, never even occurred to me, nor to Lord Ellenborough himself, though a very able and learned man, yet whose

character would have been still more involved in the acceptance of an inconsistent situation, conferring besides neither emolument nor dignity, beyond those of his already exalted station, but only adding to its almost intolerable burthens, which have lately carried him to the grave.' —

' It is true that we opposed the Income Tax, even as a war-tax, when it was first proposed in Parliament, because we thought its principle oppressive and dangerous; exposing, as it did, the private concerns of individuals, in a manner not consistent with the free spirit of our Government. We always thought so, and we think so still, but Parliament nevertheless thought fit to establish it; and when we came into office the disclosures had been made, and all the numerous, extensive, and complicated details connected with that new system of taxation, had been carried into active effect; supplying, to a considerable extent, other sources of revenue, which otherwise must have been immediately looked to. Every considerate and dispassionate person must, I apprehend, be disposed to admit, that it was not easy at once, or during our short continuance in office, to quit that great revenue, however objectionable, in the outset, or for long continuance, when the resources of the country were almost giving way under the pressure of a war, to which, at that period, it was difficult to foresee any safe or probable termination. — So circumstanced, it was thought justifiable to continue for a season that unpopular tax; and being continued, it became necessary, either to square it with the exigencies of the state, or instantly to impose other taxes, which it required the utmost consideration to mature.'

The *Trifling Mistake*, committed by Lord E. in his preface, was the appropriation to himself of a reference made by his opponent to Sir James Mackintosh; and it certainly is of trifling import to the main argument, and to the public.

Art. 25. A Supplicatory Letter to Lord Viscount Castlereagh, K. G.

By John C. Hobhouse, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stodart.

Yes, indeed, we may answer our own question in the preceding article: Mr. Hobhouse *does* now "despair of the republic." He despaired of it when he contemplated the measures lately proposed in Parliament, which are the subject of this expostulation; and he must still more despair of it now that they have been accomplished. Yet to whom is he, to whom is the public, indebted for a firm and an eloquent and a persevering opposition to these measures, but to his hated "Whigs;" and to whom else for any modification and restriction of their severity? — and does he owe no thanks to his antagonist, Lord Erskine, for his exertions in this cause?

We say that Mr. H. despairs; and, in his despair, he asserts that we need fear no efforts of the *people* in their own behalf, to which also we before alluded. He declares that, 'in the present condition of the people, resistance would be desperation;' and in opposition to an assertion made in the House of Commons that the Reformers want nothing but Revolution, he declares, 'as God shall judge me, I am certain that the man says the thing which is not.'

Mr. H.'s object, then, is to *supplicate* Lord C. to "hold his hand," when stretched out to strike at the liberties of the country.

'It will be more generous to use your authority with moderation, and, knowing yourself to be omnipotent, permit us occasionally to fancy that we are free, and to have recourse to the usages, and indulge in the habits of our better days. It will be more profitable to exercise dominion over a nation not formally as well as substantially enslaved; and it will be more glorious to govern a people, adorned with some vestiges of their ancient dignity, than stripped of every ornament that distinguishes a free man from a slave.' —

'We are more reasonable than the frogs in the fable; we are willing that the subject should be mirth to you; we only ask you always to laugh at it, and not to treat it with sober sadness and alarm. — We are used to these manners, — and our houses, too, let them be still called our *castles*, at least in the night, — let us fancy that Magna Charta is still in force, — and our right of traversing, — 'tis but a mere play-thing, — whilst ex-officio informations are your's; but it still amuses us. Let us still talk also of the Bill of Rights, and the glorious Revolution, and the birth-right of Britons, and all other national topics which serve for songs and speeches, and encourage us to pay our taxes, — and dash our moody melancholy with an agreeable mixture of sprightly pertness and pretension in the face of foreigners; whereas, after your Lordship's bills pass, we shall be pointed and jeered at from one end of Europe to the other. All Paris was in a titter at the news of the military execution done upon us at Manchester.

'You may think us very foolish and obstinate and antiquated, to stickle so much for mere forms: let me reply to your Lordship by the personification of England herself in tears, and a suppliant at your feet.

'*"Most excellent prince,"* says the venerable matron, "father of your country, pity and respect my age; since I do not repent, permit me to continue in the practice of my ancient rites. Since I am born free, allow me to enjoy my domestic institutions. With these institutions I have reduced the world under my laws: these have expelled the tyrant from my country, and the Gauls from my capitol. Were my grey hairs reserved for such intolerable disgrace? I am ignorant of the new system that I am required to adopt; but I am well assured that the correction of old age is always an ungrateful and ignominious office. . . ." *

'Your Lordship will find this prayer very little altered from the supplication addressed to the last of the tyrants of the West. The sovereigns did not listen to the orator. The altar of Victory was removed from the Senate-House. A few years afterwards, Rome was taken, and in less than a century her empire was extinguished or ever.'

The composition and tone of this pamphlet are in the same spirit with those of Mr. Hobhouse's other publications.

* The words are from Gibbon, cap. xxxviii. translating Symmachus, *Epist.* 54. lib. 10.'

TRAVELS, GEOGRAPHY, &c.

Art. 26. *Tour of Africa*: containing a concise Account of all the Countries in that Quarter of the Globe, hitherto visited by Europeans; with the Manners and Customs of the Natives, selected by the best Authors, and arranged by Catherine Hutton. 8vo. pp. 460. Baldwin and Co. 1819.

The friend of our nursery and our boyish days, Mr. *Silvester Tramper*, seems to have re-appeared on the stage; and his activity in this state of re-juvenescence exceeds that with which he was endowed in the days of his natural youth. We fear that we may have been accessory in our time to the sin of tearing him in pieces; but a more humane sorceress than Medea has appeared, and sent him forth again with increased vigour. Miss Hutton's traveller, however, be it said, is without a name, and who he may now be, therefore, we are ignorant: but "*tempore belli Trojani Euphorbus erat.*"

To drop comparisons, the present industrious and clever writer has compiled in this volume an account of Egypt, Fezzan, Dar Fur, Abyssinia, and Senaar, from the published narratives of Pococke, Bruce, Niebuhr, Volney, Savary, Sonnini, Denon, Sir R. Wilson, Horneman, Browne, and Legh; and she has so constituted her description of them, as to present a narrative from an imaginary traveller through those regions of Africa. Much description is consequently comprized in limits comparatively moderate; and youthful readers, as well as those also who are more advanced, are enabled to obtain a very fair general idea of the countries just enumerated, without the assistance of a library of travels in quarto, and with little expence of time. We could wish, indeed, that the deception of one living narrator of his adventures had been kept up a little more artificially and uniformly. As the case now stands, Miss Hutton expresses her intention of exercising the Promethean art, on her own responsibility, in the preface; and, in the introduction which immediately succeeds it, the traveller, now summoned into life, commences with an account of his own birth, parentage, and education, adding his restless inclination for foreign travel. Young people, we suspect, are very seldom readers of prefaces; the inclination to burst "*in medias res*" being much too strong to admit such a sacrifice of time: but we trust that Miss Hutton will have many more mature and more patient readers: some ingenious persons among whom, perchance, startled at the apparent contradictions of preface and introduction, may throw down the book with an exclamation similar to that of a worthy Irish divine, who, having completed the perusal of the history of Tom Jones, expressed his *suspicion* to his wife that "it was a pack of lies from the beginning to the end."

We have another trifling complaint to make, of a totally opposite tendency. As the illusion is destroyed by the preface, it would have been more satisfactory to have given references, in the margin of the page, to the different authors who have been made to contribute. At present, we confess, we have compared the detail,

detail, except in a few instances, rather with our recollections of authors than by absolute juxta-position; and, as far as we thus can speak, we consider it as a well-compiled performance, and faithful in its descriptions. The plan does not much comprize any comparison of the opinions of different writers where they have varied, nor discuss the probability of different theories as they respect the same objects of antiquity: but, though this could not have been done to any extent, a note or two might have been judiciously added. For instance, Miss Hutton says that the monument, commonly called *Pompey's pillar*, was not raised in honour of him, but of Severus; to which remark the respective claims of Adrian and Dioclesian might have been usefully subjoined in a note. The notice of the Pyramids, also, is hardly satisfactory, even for a work so limited in extent; though we are bound to confess that it is fully as good as that of Bruce himself. *

The nature of such an undertaking as the present necessarily precludes us from writing more relative to it than this general character. We wish the fair author success in it, as also in some future volumes, which, from the title-page, we presume it to be her intention to publish. The present is undoubtedly both useful and entertaining.

Art. 27. Memoir and Notice explanatory of a Chart of Madagascar and the North-eastern Archipelago of Mauritius, drawn up according to the latest Observations, under the Auspices and Government of his Excellency Robert Townshend Farquhar, Governor of the Isle of France, &c. &c. &c. by Lislet Geoffroy, Member of the Society of Emulation, in the Isle of France; and now first published in the original French, with an English Translation; together with some Observations on the Coast of Africa; and a brief Notice of the Winds on the Coast of Madagascar. 4to. pp. 57. 18s. Boards. Murray. 1819.

This chart is a very beautiful engraving by Arrowsmith: but we can only speak of it as a specimen of that art, not being capable of judging of the merits of the survey. The utility of such an undertaking must be immediately apparent to all who are in any way conversant with the accounts of voyages performed in the seas which it embraces, or who recollect the dangers which beset this portion of the route of British trade to India. It appears from Governor Farquhar's letter, in dedication of it to Lord Ba-

* In the same way, the sterility of the western side of Egypt is attributed simply to the neglect of irrigation, and the want of tenacity in the soil, arising from the absence of vegetable production. The advance of the sands from the Desert in an easterly direction is, beyond a doubt, the main cause of this deterioration; — a subject most satisfactorily illustrated in the notes to the English translation of M. Cuvier's theory of the earth.

The presumed connection of the Niger, from the Wangara Lake, with the Western Nile, is carefully marked in the chart inserted in the volume.

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thrust, that voluminous materials for this and similar purposes had been collected by the French in the Mauritius, which have been placed in the hands of M. Geoffroy, and have produced the result before us. We learn from the same source that farther objects of nautical survey in those seas are still in view, which may ultimately facilitate British intercourse with Eastern Africa; where, we believe, little now remains to the Portuguese but the pompous shadow of a name.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 28. *Thoughts on Religious Contentions*, and more particularly on such as affect the Practical Doctrines of Christianity. By the Rev. John Lowe, M.A. &c. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

This author laments that 'there should not be a nearer approach to unity of sentiment among the ministers of that church who subscribe to the same articles, profess their belief in the same doctrines, and use the same liturgy; and that invidious distinctions should be adopted, and an illiberal party-spirit generated between brethren of the same household of faith.' All this has long been a subject of grief with other persons as well as Mr. Lowe: but we cannot flatter him with the hope that his attempts to prevent these evils will be more successful than those of his predecessors. It cannot be expected that the great body of the clergy should ever coincide in a perfect unity of sentiment, with respect to the many uncertain doctrines which are interwoven in the service of the Establishment; or with regard to those metaphysical complexities which may be found in the thirty-nine Articles. Where a rich and splendid hierarchy exists, and where great emoluments are attached to the subordinate ministerial functions, it will never be difficult to induce a large body of men to profess the same faith, and to subscribe to the same articles: but it is very possible for people to profess and to subscribe what they do not understand. Moreover, with regard to a contrariety of religious opinions within the Church, as well as without the pale of the Establishment, it may be asked whether such a contrariety *within* does not enforce the necessity of forbearance and of charity; and whether the same lesson be not taught by the contrariety *without* the pale? All men cannot be of one mind; and, though outward conformity may be manifested, neither force can compel nor interest produce universal inward agreement.

Art. 29. *The Racovian Catechism*, with Notes and Illustrations, translated from the Latin: to which is prefixed, a Sketch of the History of Unitarianism in Poland and the adjacent Countries. By Thomas Rees, F.S.A. 12mo. pp. 404. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

Mr. Rees's introduction to his translation of this Unitarian Catechism will be read with interest by those who have embraced the opinions which the work itself is intended to support; and the translation of the Catechism will also, probably, be very acceptable to the general body of Unitarian Christians, as it contains

tains a perspicuous exposition of those dogmas by which they are distinguished from other sects.

Art. 30. *Sermons*, by the Rev. John Martin, more than Forty Years Pastor of the Baptist Church in Grafton-street, Soho, and Keppel-street, Bedford-square. Taken in Short-hand by Thomas Palmer. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Gale and Fenner.

This work labours under many and great disadvantages. In the first place, it consists of a series of discourses neither intended by their author for publication nor printed from the original manuscripts, but taken down in short-hand from the lips of the preacher at the time of delivery. Yet this circumstance the compiler appears to deem a considerable recommendation; and he anticipates from such a process all the benefit of a re-production of "thoughts that breathe, and words that burn." He seems, however, to forget that, although the peculiar manner and dignity of the speaker may for a time conceal the defects of his composition, and while he is speaking give life and energy to that which is in itself insipid and tasteless, yet, when the same composition is quietly perused in the closet, where nothing of the said manner and dignity and voice of the preacher is present, the whole effect is entirely destroyed: the beauties, which before were striking, may then become invisible; and the faults which before were softened down and shaded away, may then be brought into a too prominent situation, a too conspicuous light, to pass undiscovered or uncensured. While, therefore, the sermons before us, and their author, are intitled to our indulgence, Mr. Thomas Palmer, who has sent into the world compositions never intended to meet the public eye, can have no just claim to the forbearance of the critic. Had these discourses, previously to their publication, been submitted to the revision of their author, they would not, perhaps, have been found so abundant as they are in violations of taste, and manifest perversions of sound sense.

However 'natural' it may be 'for those who have heard the discourses, from which these were taken, to be desirous of preserving the impressions received from them,' the less happy few, who have not in the first instance enjoyed that advantage, would perhaps feel no great reluctance in foregoing a pleasure arising from associations and reminiscences to which they are strangers. As to the '*several hundreds* which have been taken by the same writer,' and are ready at a moment's call, we shall feel ourselves peculiarly obliged if they will only wait *till* they actually receive this call.

MINERALOGY, &c.

Art. 31. *Familiar Lessons on Mineralogy and Geology*, explaining the easiest Method of discriminating Minerals, and the earthy Substances, commonly called Rocks, which compose the primitive, secondary, Floetz or Flat, and alluvial Formations: to which is added, a Description of the Lapidaries' Apparatus, &c. with

with Engravings and a coloured Plate. By J. Mawe, Author of "The new Descriptive Catalogue of Minerals," &c. 12mo. pp. 78. Longman and Co.

This little volume, being principally intended to recommend the author's collections of minerals, and his lapidary's apparatus, blow-pipe, &c. scarcely falls within the range of criticism. 'Minerals (he informs us) are produced in the earth, and commonly situated in what are termed veins, which, when worked, are called mines, whether at the greatest depth we have penetrated, or in the alluvial soil on the surface. Be it a diamond, a coal, or any metallic substance, it is a mineral. The gems are usually called stones; and crystallizations, fossils; yet all are ranked under the term minerals. A distinct piece is commonly called a specimen; and a number of various substances, a collection.' It happens rather unfortunately that the above definitions, which are the first in the book, are at variance with facts. Minerals found in veins bear no proportion in quantity to the minerals which scarcely ever occur in that situation; for Mr. M. cannot, agreeably to his own definitions, refuse the term mineral to coal, lime-stone, flint, slate, &c., and to the various substances of which all rocks and strata are composed. The term fossil, we believe, is rarely applied to crystals in the present day, but is most frequently used to designate the fossil organic remains of animals or vegetables which are often called petrifications, and also extraneous fossils. — Those who form collections of minerals, with no higher object than amusement, will find the present little work an agreeable companion.

EDUCATION.

Art. 32. *Grecian Stories*, taken from the Works of eminent Historians; with explanatory Dialogues. By Maria Hack. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Darton and Harvey. 1819.

The extraordinary multiplicity of works in every branch of education renders peculiar merit, in this department of literature, almost as difficult as novelty of plan or execution; and the class of books which are intended as subsidiary to education, or to convey instruction during those seasons of the day which are devoted by children to their amusement within doors, are as numerous as those which advance directly to their purpose. This little volume belongs to such an auxiliary army, and is in itself a very able-bodied recruit; though with one part of the accoutrements we would willingly dispense, viz. the little introductory dialogues between the mama and her children. The effect of a book of this description is injured, if the young aspirant for learning conceives it to be too childish for his age; and, since his first attempts at reading are generally made in books full of this interlocutory matter, as he advances, he treats it with a disproportionate degree of contempt. — The stories from Grecian records are well chosen, pleasantly narrated, and adapted not only to improvement in history but to a more general expansion of mind and feeling. They are chiefly drawn from Rollin, Spelman, and
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Mitford, and from Xenophon through the medium of translations. We are not altogether as hostile, as Miss Hack appears to be, to historical catechisms, and the exercise of the memory simply in names and dates : but, though unwilling to exclude such exercises, we are equally solicitous that they should not be foolishly deemed a sufficient mode of imparting historical instruction. The best system seems to be the reading of history moderately abridged, subsequent examination in names and dates, and the perusal of stories like the present, illustrative of the most interesting periods ; as also of some short biographical memoirs of the most eminent persons, thrown into an agreeable form, with a relief of the dryness always belonging to the abridged annals of mankind.

The stories in this volume are placed in chronological order, although the events which give rise to them are not immediately consecutive on each other. A felicity of explaining customs, and rendering the narratives auxiliary to improvement in geography, is also happily exerted as occasion requires.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *Considerations on the alarming Increase of Forgery on the Bank of England, and the Neglect of remedial Measures ; with an Essay on the Remedy for the Detection of Forgeries, and an Account of the Measures adopted by the Bank of Ireland. Addressed to the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the Remedy for the Prevention of Forgeries. By Charles Wye Williams, Esq. . 8vo. pp. 190. Longman and Co.*

If the notes of a provincial bank were to be forged, and the proprietors were not only to refuse payment of the forgeries but would take no measures to prevent the public from suffering by the circulation of them, the consequence would be the loss of credit to the house, and its probable ruin. Though such an effect is not to be predicted with regard to the National Bank, yet, since its notes are made, as it were, the legal *current coin* of the realm, the public have surely but too much ground of serious complaint, when forgeries to the amount of nearly 75,000*l.* are circulated within two years and a quarter, and the unfortunate possessors, with no means of discriminating between genuine and forged notes, are made the sufferers. The evil has been felt for more than twenty years ; and it is discreditable to the different Courts of Directors during that time, that no efficient remedy has been long ere this applied. The want of talent will be urged as the excuse, but it will not avail : the defect has been the want of encouragement for talent. As an evidence of this fact, now that the disgusting and cruel recurrence of capital inflictions for this offence has called aloud for reform, and opened the eyes of the benevolent and the wise to the origin of the mischief, what is the consequence of the active exertions of the present Court ? — not only that they are deluged with the plans of pretenders, but that they have excited the emulation of men of science and ingenuity. We believe that the extent of the evil is fully appreciated

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by the present Directors, and have reason to know that large sums have been expended by them, in trying the plans of some artists and assisting the endeavours of others. They feel, however, that less is to be dreaded from a short continuance of the present note, than from the hasty adoption of one that may be apparently better, but which, after trial, may be found not to be an effective substitute. We trust that they will be able to form a speedy determination between the two plans, on the superior excellence of which we understand a doubt at present exists. *

With regard to the pamphlet before us, we cannot say much in its favour. Mr. Williams is a tiresome and *lengthy* writer, and has filled 190 pages with matter which, if properly and clearly stated, would not have called for a quarter of the number. His views, however, are just; and we agree with him in thinking that the *public* have a right to expect protection as well as the *Bank*, and that therefore the composition of the circulating note should be so managed as to enable every individual to see whether it be genuine or not. This, Mr. W. says, is effected by the note of the Bank of Ireland; in dilating on the excellence of which, and of Mr. Oldham its inventor, he occupies much paper. He goes so far, indeed, as to say that 'such a description may in a few words be given of the Irish note, as that a person, who had never seen a *genuine* one would be able to detect a *counterfeit*.'

* We have since heard that the plan of the American candidate has been adopted.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We agree with *G.R.P.* in the object and sentiments of his letter: but a short reconsideration of it will shew him that we cannot give insertion to it, and that it is right for us to refrain from taking farther notice of it than this general acknowledgement.

S.T.P. has our thanks, and we will endeavour to fulfil his wishes.

Our next Number will probably contain the article for which our friend *in the North* inquires.

*** The APPENDIX to this Volume will be published with the Review for January, on the 1st of February.

☞ In the last Review, p. 266. line 26., for '*excitandem*,' read *excitandam*: — p. 290. l. 24., for 'call,' read *caul*: — p. 334. note, l. 2., after 'a half,' add, *per week*.



THE
A P P E N D I X
TO THE
NINETIETH VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Constitutions de la Nation Française, &c. ; i. e. Constitutions of the French Nation, with an Historical and Political Treatise on the Charter, and a Collection of Documents relative to it.* By Count LANJUINAIS, Peer of France, Commander in the Legion of Honour, and Member of the Institute. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 514. and 565. Paris. 1819.

SO lately as in our Appendix to vol. lxxxviii., we had occasion to notice a short tract by this respectable veteran of the French Revolution; and we are now to report a work of an importance better suited to the high reputation of the writer. In every situation, and under every change of ruler, Count LANJUINAIS has proved himself the zealous assertor of the cause of freedom; and, while thus assured of his integrity, his readers have the farther satisfaction that, from his intimate knowledge of law, for he was both a pleader and a professor before the Revolution, he is qualified to discuss with depth and clearness the great questions connected with his undertaking. These questions are numerous and comprehensive, embracing the principles of government generally, and, in a particular sense, the situation of France during the eventful period of the last thirty years. The book, therefore, is thus partly disquisitional and partly historical; and, to avoid confusion amid such a variety of matter, it is necessary for us to proceed on a plan of selection, considering one volume apart

from the other, and the narrative-portion as distinct from the speculative. We begin by an abstract of the contents of

Vol. I. *Historical Sketch of the different Constitutions in France, viz. before the Revolution; in 1791; in 1793; in 1795; in 1799; in 1804; and, lastly, after the Restoration of the Bourbons in April, 1814. Exposition of the Rights, political and civil, of Frenchmen: Liberty of Persons, of Opinion, and Religion: Security of Property. Present Form of Government with the Powers and Limitations of each Branch: the King; the House of Peers; the Chamber of Deputies, or House of Commons; the Judicial Establishments; the Cabinet; and the Conseil d'Eta; the Charte, or Charter.* — The historical part, if it contain little that is new to those who have studied the political changes of France during the last thirty years, must still be useful to the majority of readers, as exhibiting in a condensed space that which has hitherto been spread over a multiplicity of publications. The other part of the volume, we mean the disquisitions on law, and the more minute explanations of the present form of constitution, are interesting to a much smaller number, — to those only who make a study of legislation. For the present, therefore, we shall give it a comparatively small share of attention, and, by preference, lay before our readers a rapid narrative of those different forms of government which succeeded each other with such fair promise, and such frequent failure, among our credulous and vacillating neighbours.

Before the Revolution, France could hardly be said to have a Constitution, even if that word be taken in the limited sense, not of popular right, but of a definite distribution of the powers of government. One thing only was clear, — the existence of the royal authority: but even here the degree of power varied with the personal character of the monarch. The Parliament of Paris and the twelve provincial Parliaments were composed, not of representatives of the people, but of judges and lawyers, constituted originally as a court of justice, and in no respect qualified to act as a representative body. Public offices were often purchased; professions and trades were exercised by license from the crown; and, in short, the will of the King, or, in other words, the sanction of the executive branch, became necessary to a vast variety of transactions in private life, for which in England it would be ridiculous to resort to such a formality. Still the executive power was far from absolute: it was even much impeded in its progress, for it could not, like a representative government, call to its aid the voice of the people against the claims of a particular body, — of the clergy, the *noblesse*, or even of
a pri-

a privileged province, such as Brittany or Languedoc. Whoever reads the long and angry discussions between the King and the parliament of Paris, in the latter years of *Louis XVI.*, will cease to connect the idea of vigour with that of unlimited prerogative; and will be satisfied that, in every civilized country, the true way to facilitate the course of public business to the King is to give a full and fair representation to the people. Unfortunately, these views never obtained the sanction of the French court, and endeavours were made to substitute for the parliament, first, provincial meetings, and afterward an assembly at Paris of the higher nobility and clergy, under the imposing name of *cour plénière*: but all was ineffectual; and, in spite of every effort, the Revolution commenced its overwhelming career.

The constitution of 1791, the first work of a French deliberative assembly, effected very material changes; particularly the abolition of tithes, of unequal taxation, of the purchase of public offices, and of that remnant of feudal oppression which still harassed the peasantry. It sanctioned also a better territorial division of the kingdom, and broke in fragments the exclusive privileges of the great provinces; a task of much greater difficulty than it is possible for Englishmen to conceive from any inference drawn from their own country, the different parts of which have been so long blended in one common compound. The great defect of the constitution of 1791 lay in the want of a second legislative chamber, and in denying to the King the right of dissolving Parliament; faults originating not in a want of knowledge or liberality on the part of the constituent assembly, but in a double distrust; first of those orders of the state (the nobility and clergy) which would have formed an upper house; and next of the court, or rather of the Queen, who governed her husband, and still listened with surprising pertinacity to the advisers of war and arbitrary measures.

The Jacobins. — The majority of the assembly of 1791 were very different from the sanguinary party of 1792, — the Jacobins, or firebrands of the Revolution, who acquired strength slowly, and from an unfortunate concurrence of faults on both sides; from the emigration of the *noblesse*; from the members of the first assembly declaring themselves ineligible to the second; and, above all, from the equivocating and even unfaithful conduct of the court. The ascendancy of the Jacobins dates from the bloodshed of the 10th of August, and still more from the dreadful massacres of the 2d and 3d of September, 1792. Though still the minority in the Convention, they possessed a most efficient support in the com-
mune.

mune or magistracy of Paris, and in the armed multitude which that magistracy could put in motion, by raising the cry of treachery, and exciting an alarm for the cause of liberty. It was the terror thus inspired that prompted many of the votes for the death of the King; — an act equally repugnant to the general humanity of Frenchmen, and contradictory of their personal impressions towards the unfortunate *Louis*. By this catastrophe, the Jacobins surmounted one great obstacle to the assumption of power: but there remained an enlightened majority in the Convention, who stood their ground during the first part of 1793, and were not overpowered until the popular movements of 31 May, and 1 and 2 June. The evident injustice of these acts excited the loudest murmurs throughout the nation, particularly in the departments represented by the victims of these enormities. To calm the general effervescence, the Jacobins produced a new constitution, abstracted from the extended plan proposed in the preceding February by the unfortunate *Condorcet*; — a constitution which exhibited republicanism carried to an extreme, and admitted universal suffrage in the election of members; while, with regard to legislation, parliament had the power only of proposing and provisionally executing; the final decision being left to the people collected in local assemblies. Such a form of government is practicable only in the smallest state; in a city which, like Geneva, has scarcely any territory beyond the boundary of its walls. The Jacobins never could have had a serious intention of acting on this visionary plan: but they knew that the nation would accept it in the hope of its leading to relief from anarchy; and they made use of this specious offer as a political lever, following up its adoption by a general diffusion of alarm, denouncing their opponents as traitors to liberty, and obtaining first their commitment to prison and subsequently the confiscation of their property. When thus established on solid grounds, the Jacobins suspended this phantom of a constitution, and replaced it by what they termed a revolutionary government to last during the war; in other words, a sweeping and irresistible tyranny. The scaffolds of Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, and Nantes were now covered with victims; the armies were recruited by terror; and all France bowed to the yoke, until on the 9th of Thermidor, (27th July, 1794,) a desperate effort, made not by the majority of the public but by a party about to be sacrificed, led to the overthrow of these sanguinary chiefs, and to the proclamation of a new system, that of moderation; — or, to adopt the revolutionary epithet, *moderatism*.

Constitution of 1795. — Thus was France relieved from oppression, but by no means brought back to an attachment to royalty: the executions, so odious to the people, were discontinued, and the innocent prisoners were set free: but the current of public feeling continued republican, and it was still deemed treasonable to advocate the cause of the *noblesse* or the clergy. A new constitution, as democratical as it could be to be rendered practicable in an extensive country, was prepared, and, after considerable delay, brought forwards on the 22d of August, 1795. It contained, among a number of good provisions, two legislative chambers, one being the Council of Five Hundred, which was empowered to propose laws and to hold the purse of the nation; and the other, a House of Elders (of the age of forty and upwards), authorized to watch the executive power, and to give, like our peers, an occasional negative to the measures of the Lower House. The executive power was vested in five directors; and the whole exhibited the constitution of 1791 improved in several respects, but with one grand drawback, — the want of a single head for the executive branch. The possession of a small but specified property was necessary for a seat in parliament: the mayors and other local magistrates were made elective, as they always ought to be, by those over whom they preside; volunteers were enrolled under the name of National Guards; and the courts of justice were re-constituted on the same plan as in 1791. The Directory possessed the executive power, in nearly the same degree as the President of the United States, and, like him, without the dignified attributes of royalty; we mean the sanctioning of laws, and the pardoning of criminals: but it had a temporary power of great efficacy in keeping proscribed individuals on the list of emigrants, and in exiling all the clergy who should refuse the oath of attachment to the new system.

Under this government, France enjoyed a considerable share of liberty during twenty months; for we must carefully distinguish between the first and the second periods of the directorial reign. It was the revolution of 18 Fructidor (4th September, 1797,) that caused an unfortunate change, and transferred the power into hands little better than those of the Jacobins. This fluctuating and disreputable government continued two years: but at last, in November, 1799, (18 Brumaire,) came *Bonaparte*, who began his career by fair promises, but who soon learned to consider all Frenchmen and all mankind as nothing in comparison with himself.

Government of Bonaparte. — The constitution of 1800, called the Consular, was prepared by a special commission; which, acting in subserviency to *Bonaparte*, did not scruple to

ballot; and so thoroughly was this body gained over, that the number of negative votes was always insignificant. The liberty of the press, and, in some measure, the liberty of the person, became an empty name; while the news-papers, all in the hands of government, suppressed or disfigured the public acts, and formed a continued panegyric on the executive power. The departmental and other local magistrates had been elective since the Revolution: but *Bonaparte* established, in each department, a *prefet* who was revocable at his will: also mayors and municipal officers changeable by him, by the minister of the home-department, or by the *prefet*. Of the mayors, the *sous prefets*, and even the *prefets*, he made mere officers of police; thus erecting a despotism in detail, the most insupportable of all. The juries, by an encroachment which still subsists, were named by the *prefets*; and state-offences were tried, not by the regular judges, but by special courts and extraordinary commissions.

In 1804, *Bonaparte* made several important changes; suppressing the Tribune without increasing the number of the legislative body; and professing to give the latter the power of discussion, while, in fact, he made sure of their silence. The right of speaking was confined to three commissions, which were permanent, and were limited, moreover, to few members; while the age of forty (instead of thirty) was rendered a preliminary requisite to a seat in the assembly. The Institute and other literary bodies were prevented from discussing morals or politics; and the bar was brought under the subjection of two public officers who were dependent on the crown, viz. a minister, and the Attorney-general. In the church, also, *Bonaparte* sought the means of confirming his power. Since the Revolution, bishoprics had been elective: but this free and open course by no means corresponded with the views of the new ruler, who resumed the power of nominating to them, and gave to the Pope the right of inducting to them. The next step, and one that in a Catholic country is far from insignificant, was to promulgate a catechism which had been prepared in a ministerial *bureau*, and which proclaimed Napoleon “an envoy of God.” The police kept in pay a number of spies: the law corresponding to our *habeas corpus* was permanently suspended: persons were committed to prison without an avowed cause; and even torture was, in some cases, understood to be inflicted.

Government of the Bourbons. — Odious as *Bonaparte* had become, the re-establishment of the Bourbons was by no means expected on the first entrance of the allies into Paris. It was on the 31st of March (1814) that a proclamation appeared,

peared, on the part of the allied powers, excluding Napoleon from the throne, and inviting the Senate to prepare a constitution. On the next day, about thirty senators met and named a provisional government, with instructions to present the plan of a constitution. On the 3d of April, the Senate, now more numerous, passed an act declaring that *Bonaparte* had forfeited the crown; an act which, in the course of a few days, was subscribed by almost all the senators, the members of the legislative body, and the occupants of public offices. Still the Bourbons had been mentioned in one quarter only, — by the representatives of the department of Paris. On the 6th, the provisional government offered for the acceptance of the Senate a plan pronouncing the recall of the exiled family, and containing much of the constitution of 1791, with the important addition of a second house of parliament. A grand attempt was made to maintain the revolutionary colours (red, blue, and white,) instead of white singly, which was the antient colour of France, the Senate expressing its desire to that effect three times: but the provisional government was inflexible. Yet the relinquishment of this one point would, more than any thing, have reconciled the revolutionists to the change.

On the 4th of June, the new legislative body met in two houses. The charter, in itself excellent, was ushered in by an ungracious preamble; representing it not as a compact between the King and the people, but as a grant of the sovereign, who, it was asserted, was then in the nineteenth year of his reign; thus stamping the long interval since the death of his brother with the odious name of rebellion. This first imprudence was followed by several acts of the same kind, on the part both of conspicuous individuals and of government. Many royalists affected to detest the charter, and a protest against it was signed by forty men of family, several of them members of the House of Peers: these resolute adherents to old usage professing to found their claims to the peerage on rights prior to the Revolution. Various *ordonnances* were issued in the King's name, some interpreting the Constitution, others laying down rules for the Chambers, and not a few derogating from law. To all this was added the proposition of a monument for the unfortunate emigrants who had suffered death at Quiberon;—victims in whose fate no one could fail to sympathize, but whose memory could not be thus publicly recalled without an accusation of the revolutionary government, with which half the nation deemed itself connected. Such measures, though in substance innoxious, afforded pretexts to the discontented, and disposed a great part of the public

public to acquiesce without resistance in that most sudden and unexpected event, the return of *Bonaparte* from Elba.

The plan of Count LANJUNAIS allows him to treat of this return only as it affected the nature of the civil government of France. *Bonaparte*, conscious that he could hope for support only from the *Liberalistes*, professed to restore the constitution of 1791, and convened a House of Commons on the large scale of 629 members. Aware that, by his anti-commercial decrees, he had given great cause of complaint to the mercantile body, he now made a provision which was without example in any of the governments of Europe,—that of giving special representatives to the body of traders and ship-owners. He did not, however, abolish hereditary nobility, or its odious entails; a course, which, joined to the remembrance of his former oppression, awakened the jealousy of the Deputies, and gave rise to several of the most interesting discussions in the eventful month of June, 1815. M. LANJUNAIS was then President of the Chamber of Deputies; which, in a session of only a few weeks, and amid stormy debates, had merely time to put on record the principles of a free but monarchical constitution, when the allied troops again entered Paris, and dissolved this short-lived assembly.

Since that memorable epoch, the constitution of France has been exempt from the alarms of war, but has experienced considerable modifications and even shocks from the collision of domestic parties. Many of the royalists, seeing their cause supported by an overpowering force of foreigners, assumed a high tone; and associations, formed both in Paris and the provincial towns, called for the most vigorous measures of coercion against their political opponents. The number of peers declared to have forfeited their titles was 29; the cause, their having acted as peers under the usurper. A new House of Commons was convoked: the number, greater than the charter implied, was 395; and the age required in a member was not forty, as formerly, but twenty-five. The King, and various peers and members of the commons, were in favour of a moderate course: but many public men held a different language; and, as they formed the majority in a parliament elected amid calamities ascribed to the revolutionists, various measures of rigour were carried. *Prevôtal* courts, to the number of 85, were appointed throughout the kingdom for the trial of acts of sedition, as if these and all other state-offences might not have been safely left to the regular tribunals; and religious establishments were authorized to become permanent proprietors of such bequests as should be made to them; a provision apparently nothing more than
just.

just, but of serious import in a Catholic country, where ecclesiastics possess so much power over the conscience, and are not unfrequently accused of exerting that influence for the benefit of the church in the last moments of their followers. Farther, a bill passed the two houses to deprive all the married clergy of their incomes and pensions: a step which can be appreciated only by those who know the rancour of the royalists towards these apostates from the fundamental law of the church: but fortunately the King refused his sanction to this measure.

At last, this refractory House of Commons, which had pressed so many laws against the wish of the sovereign and the wisest portion of his counsellors, was dissolved by a royal *ordonnance* of September 5th, 1816; which, accompanied as it was by other favourable indications, evinced a change of policy in the court, and excited the warmest applause on the part of the *Liberalistes* or moderate revolutionists. The next session, begun in November, 1816, was remarkable chiefly for a change in the mode of voting in the election of deputies or members of parliament: till then, the practice had been for the voters to nominate not their representatives, but an intermediate committee (*collège électoral*), to whom they delegated this important trust. The leading act of the succeeding session, viz. the law of December, 1817, for recruiting the army by a modified conscription, though not a party-measure, was acceptable to the *Liberalistes*, and still more the partial change of ministry in January, 1819: when, by dismissing the Duke *de Richelieu*, the King evinced a wish to adhere to the new plan of parliamentary election; which wish was placed beyond all doubt by the creation of sixty *new* peers in the beginning of March following. This nomination comprized a number of revolutionary generals, *Jourdan*, *Davoust*, *Suchet*, *Beliard*, *Moncey*, *Lefebvre*, *Du Breton*, and *Rampon*; together with *Verheuil*, *Champagny*, and other well known functionaries of *Bonaparte*. After this, the conduct of the court continued favourable to the *Liberalistes*, until the partial removal of the House of Deputies in the last autumn; when the current of national favour was found to run so strongly on the side of that party, (for of 52 newly elected members nearly 40 proved to belong to it,) that *Louis* and his advisers began to consider them as too powerful, and to meditate a change in that most important of all laws, the law of election. It is thus that we are obliged to explain the remarkable words in the opening speech of the King, that “the time is come for giving strength to the ‘Chamber of Deputies, and relieving it from the yearly collisions of parties,

l'action

‘*l’action annuelle des partis.*’ ” The discussions on this subject are likely to be long and arduous ; no proposition, and we may add no event during the last five years, having so strongly fixed the attention of the French parliament and nation.

It is now time to advert to the second volume of this work, and to present our readers with an abstract of its very diversified contents : these are, particular laws and *ordonnances* since 1814, given in title or in abstract : among others, those relative to the press, the *conseil d’état*, and the volunteers or national guards ; also those regarding public education, and the funds of cities, towns, and boroughs. The Appendix contains an historical summary of remarkable declarations, decrees, and acts passed during the thirty years from 1789 to 1819. This collection comprizes a number of celebrated documents, such as the declaration of the rights of man (21st July, 1789) ; the abolition of nobility in France (19th June, 1790) ; the abolition of royalty (20th September, 1792) ; and the final organization of the revolutionary tribunal by the dreadful decree of 10th June, 1794. To these are added, the official act for the cessation of the directorial power, and the appointment of *Bonaparte* (10th November, 1799) ; the declaration (4th August, 1802,) of *Bonaparte’s* consulship for life ; the investiture (19th May, 1804,) of him and his descendants with the title of Emperor ; the whole followed (3d April, 1814,) by the act of his *déchéance*. The Appendix includes, farther, the *acte additionel*, or improved constitution, granted by *Bonaparte* (22d April, 1815,) on his return from Elba ; and it closes with various acts and regulations passed by *Louis XVIII.* at so late a date as 1819.

The general inference to be drawn from the volumes of M. LANJUINAIS, as from those of *Mad. de Staël*, *Mad. de Roland*, *Carnot*, and other unprejudiced writers, is that we may account for the excesses of the French Revolution without any stigma on the nation at large ; that they were the acts of a violent but far from numerous party ; and that the popular assemblages, by which these political desperadoes accomplished the overthrow of their opponents, were strangers to the criminality of their leaders, and exhibited, on various occasions, (as on the 20th of June, 1792,) a decided disposition to humanity and forbearance. Several of the questions discussed in the present work are not a little strange to English readers ; particularly the plan of giving a regular salary to members of the legislature. Such was the practice throughout the early part of the Revolution ; such also was the practice under *Bonaparte* ; and it was, says Count LANJUINAIS, without sufficient authority that the Bourbon ministry of 1815 decided that the
members

members of the Commons should receive no salary, — a decision ratified by a law on the 5th of February, 1817. It is but of late that a seat in the French parliament has begun to prove a source of patronage, or a stepping-stone to personal advancement; and it will require a considerable time to give to this portion of the political machine the flexibility so long imparted to it on our side of the Channel: but, in the meanwhile, the removal of the fixed income of the deputies is no slight preparation for a dependence on the crown.

M. LANJUINAIS discovers, in almost every page of his book, the zeal of an adherent to the doctrines of the Revolution; understanding by this expression, which, when unqualified, suggests an alarming impression to an English reader, the principles which animated the majority of the National Assembly in 1789, which are so energetically enforced in the lately published work of *Mad. de Staël*, and which, in the day of terror, formed the creed of the Girondists and others who paid for their opposition to the Jacobins with their lives. As a political reasoner, the trespasses of the present author are similar to those which have been so often charged on the ill-fated companions of his early days; such as an unconsciousness of the difficulty of practical politics, and of the allowances requisite in the application of general principles. This is exemplified in various passages of his work; and among others in his censure of the line of civil policy pursued by *Bonaparte* on his return from Elba: as if, in a situation of such extreme embarrassment, it had been practicable for any political leader to steer clear of material error, or to avoid offending one or another of the great factions that divided the country. In the same spirit, M. LANJUINAIS passes censure on some rigid measures of *Louis* at his return from Ghent in 1815: a time when the natural moderation of the sovereign was compelled to give way before the necessity of demonstrating his power, and silencing a very clamorous party who asserted that he dared not to stretch forth the rod over those who had abandoned him.

Another drawback on the part of this writer, and one for which those only who have a thorough knowledge of Paris and France can be prepared, is credulity. Will it be believed by an English reader that this active and experienced politician has not been able (vol. i. p. 44.) to rise superior to the absurd notion that the insurrections of the Jacobins, and, among others, the decisive one of 31st May, 1793, were planned in London; or that he can gravely repeat (vol. i. p. 81.) the inconceivable allegation so often found in the mouths of French-

Frenchmen, that the British government connived at the escape of *Bonaparte* from Elba?

These are the principal deductions from the merit of this valuable work:—a work exhibiting a surprizing fund of legal and political erudition; and composed so thoroughly in the spirit of independence that, though publishing under a Bourbon government, the author never scruples to animadvert on instances of favour shewn to royalists, or to assert, on every occasion, the maintenance of popular rights. In point of style, without much study of ornament, or even of amenity, M. DE L. is a concise and spirited writer; conferring interest by his clearness and animation on disquisitions naturally uninviting, and giving attraction to the relation of even well-known events by the rapidity of his narrative. This power is exemplified in a variety of passages; among others, in the description (vol. i. p. 82.) of the march of *Bonaparte* from Cannes to Paris; and it is not a little aided by a figure more permitted to French than English writers, we mean the use of the present tense: thus: ‘*Bientot il est reçu dans Lyon, cette ville où l’héritier du trône est froidement accueilli. Les troupes envoyées contre Napoléon marchent pour lui et le proclament. En vain le fils de l’héritier du trône et la fille de Louis XVI. ont tenté le sort des armes,*’ &c. This figure is also much employed by another French writer of the present age, but one of less stern republicanism than M. LANJUINAIS; we mean M. *Lacretelle*, whose “*Civil Wars of France*” we had lately (see our Appendix to vols. lxxxviii. and lxxxix.) occasion to report. That book, like the “*Historical Sketch of the Eighteenth Century*” from the same pen, is replete with passages which prove how greatly a man of talents may add to the beauty of description; and those of our readers, who may happen to have the last-mentioned work at hand, will find in the account of the Pretender’s march through Scotland in 1745, and the insurrection of the Genoese in 1746, very appropriate exemplifications of the animation of style which we have noticed in the present author.

ART. II. *Mémoires pour servir, &c.; i. e.* Memoirs illustrative of the Campaign of 1796; containing the Operations of the Army of the Sambre and Meuse, under the Orders of the General in Chief JOURDAN. 8vo. pp. 352. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 7s. 6d. sewed.

OUR readers will remember that, in our Appendix to vol. lxxxvi., we gave a copious report of a work intitled *Principes de la Stratégie*, translated into French by
Gener

General *Jomini*, from the German original attributed to the pen of the Archduke *Charles*. In the second volume of that elaborate and esteemed performance, the Archduke justified himself from the imputation of sinister motives relatively to those parts of his history of the campaign of 1796, in which the conduct or the motives of his famed opponents are censured. "The intention of the author," said his Highness, "is not to depreciate the operations carried on by justly esteemed Generals. He knows that it is easier to judge of events after they have taken place, in the calm of reflection, and with an exact knowlege of the resources of each party, than to form an unerring decision at a critical moment. It will therefore be an unfounded suspicion to imagine that the observations in this performance arise from jealousy, or from presumptuous criticism. He takes up the pen only to extend the benefits of instruction, and to propagate military notions of a superior order. The History of the Campaign of 1796 must, then, be considered only as the developement of the principles of strategy, and of tactics, which he has laid down in the first part of his work." After a patient and minute inspection of his History of the Campaign, we fully acquitted the Archduke of any undue partialities, or of calumniating those by whose prowess and whose genius his own skill and bravery were so frequently rendered nugatory.

In this opinion, we were powerfully supported by the French translator; who strongly exemplified the reasons which the history contained to enable him to make such a decision. With historians of contemporaneous events, however, it usually happens that, though they employ every possible precaution to prevent their ink from being converted into gall, sufficiently acrid particles will exist in its composition to poison the repose of the characters whom it has described; and from this common predicament neither the rank nor the declaration of the Prince has been able to extricate him.

Accordingly, Marshal JOURDAN, once the able and active opponent of the Archduke in the field, finding himself aggrieved by some of the commentaries above mentioned, is the first champion who again offers battle to his antient enemy; not indeed in chivalrous lists, but on the scarcely less dangerous ground of a paper-controversy; and so far we cannot but think that this officer is perfectly right, in thus availing himself of an opportunity to narrate his own warlike deeds; which course, we have no doubt; will prove gratifying to his comrades in arms, as well as to French vanity in general. Though the Marshal's designation is placed in the title-page
only

only in a relative position, and may appear to leave the production as anonymous, yet we understand that, as the work which it controverts was undoubtedly the composition of the royal author whose name we have attached to it, so this publication certainly emanates from the pen of his opponent in question.

We shall translate the introduction, or rather the preface, as it will give our readers the clearest notions of the object for which the narrative was undertaken.

‘ We had composed from authentic materials the *Memoirs of the Campaign of the Army du Nord*, in 1793, and of the *Army of the Sambre and Meuse*, in 1794, 1795, and 1796, without entertaining an intention of making our labours public: for impartial truth offends the sight of contemporaries, and posterity alone can bear its splendor: but, having perused the *History of the Campaign of 1796*, generally attributed to Prince *Charles*, it appeared necessary for us to publish, in our turn, the portion of our *Memoirs* which relates to the events of that campaign; and to add, either as notes or by incorporations with the original text, those reflections which the work has excited in our minds.

‘ Prince *Charles* had certainly an indisputable right to criticize the operations of his adversaries; faults committed by Generals are within the province of history: but there are rules which an author, whoever he may be, ought never to infringe; and the Archduke was the less intitled to deviate from them, because he knew very well that those whom he treats with slight regard would not forget the respect which is his due. No great sagacity, moreover, is evinced in acting thus, since the glory of a general is always heightened by the merits of his adversary.

‘ We have judged it proper to preface the recital of the events of 1796 by a rapid view of the preceding campaigns, and the situation of Europe. We have also inserted, in separate notes, such justificatory documents as were most important, and of which we can, if necessary, prove the authenticity. We could have desired also to attach some maps to our *Memoirs*, in order to facilitate the understanding of the text: but the preparation of them would have occupied some months; and, as our aim is to rectify immediately those errors into which the Archduke has fallen, and to demonstrate that the advantages which he gained are not detailed with all the impartiality that is due to history, a retarded publication would have become less interesting; while those persons who possess the work of the Prince can make use of his maps when perusing our volume.

‘ Occupied in military duty from our very infancy, we are but little accustomed to wield the pen, and have no other pretension to literary merit than as having written the truth. If we are mistaken on any particulars, it is for want only of the means of research, as our intention has no share in the trespass.

‘To conclude, the reader must not be surprized if he discovers some passages in these Memoirs resembling fragments of the work intitled *Victoires et Conquêtes*; because, having communicated our manuscripts to the editors of that performance, they judged it advisable to make extracts from them, rather than to distil the spirit.’

Though the angry warrior peeps forth in almost every paragraph of this short preface, we will give the writer the credit of supposing him to have taken up the gauntlet of his opponent with a truly chivalrous spirit, and that he really did not intend to enter into bitter sarcasm or silly invective, but patiently and coolly to argue the campaign point by point; until his natural feelings got the better of him, and in some few instances, which we shall notice as they occur, he gave way to them with all the freedom which an anonymous production confers. By steering a due course between these two writers, future historians will be able to give a faithful narrative of a series of operations which astonished Europe; though their lustre has been somewhat dimmed by the more recent brilliancy of the campaigns of the last ten years.

The style in which this narrative is related, though not so unadorned as its writer would wish us to believe, and not perfectly simple and plain, is free from the abominable *verbiage* and metaphoric bent of the modern Gallic school.

Having thus given the reader a thorough insight into the nature of this work, we shall proceed briefly to extract its most remarkable as well as obnoxious points: but, as the publication is almost a counterpart of the History by Prince Charles, it would be useless to dwell on any other portions of it than those which seem to impugn the good faith of the Austrian commentator.

The first chapter contains a sketch, exactly similar to the one given in the first section of the second volume of the *Principles of Strategy*, describing the state of Europe and the campaigns at and prior to the eventful year ninety-six; with only this difference, that the Revolutionists are treated in a more *affectionate* manner than by the Archduke. Two connected paragraphs in this division are worthy of being noted; as they sensibly shew how very easy it is in France to follow the principles adopted by the celebrated Vicar of Bray, of happy memory. After having adverted to the rapacity of the coalesced Princes, each struggling for their individual good, and each forgetting that to obtain the primary object of their union, *the restoration of the Bourbons*, it was requisite for them to act in concert and simultaneously, the author observes; ‘To make them learn this lesson, it was only necessary that

that an *extraordinary man* should throw off the elements of the Revolution; who, having alternately deceived each and every party, and successively vanquished all the potentates, taught kings that their only safety consisted in steadily uniting their will and their means.' Then follows this salvo, which we translate literally: 'The calamities that weighed on France were yet more aggravated by an oppressive and sanguinary government; which, after having shed the blood of a king the most beloved, and the most deserving by his virtues to be so regarded, seemed to wish to drench itself with that of the most eminent and amiable of its citizens.'

Chapter II. describes the situation of the belligerent parties at the opening of the campaign of 1796; the third section relates the passage of the Seig and the battle of Altenkirchen; and the fourth gives the retreat of the Archduke on the right bank of the Rhine, with the intermediate events, to the battles of Wetzlar and Ukerath. In this portion, a severe reminiscence occurs respecting the conduct of General *Kleber*, who is accused of offering battle at Ukerath against the tenor of his instructions; and it is here also that the first great sign occurs of the rankling wound which Prince *Charles's* observations have created in the bosom of his competitor for glory. The long note appended to pages 44. and 45. will fully explain this matter to such readers as are willing to peruse it: but we think that these reflections against the veracity of the imperial author are as frivolous as the subject of them is laudable.

In the fifth chapter, relating the passage of the Rhine at Neuwied, and the battle of Wilmendorf, we fancy that we can discover the master-spring of all the rancour engendered in the mind of the writer. The Archduke, in commenting on the passage of the Rhine, has used the following expressions: "*Jourdan ought to have turned Wartensleben's right: but he had not the vigour of mind necessary to contemplate from Coblentz a plan so vast and profound.*" Notwithstanding that the avowed object of the present work is to confute such reflections on the writer's character, he contents himself with replying to this open attack by saying, 'it would be an easy matter to shew that, had he acted as the Archduke asserts he ought to have done, he would have exposed himself to fatal inconveniencies; it is sufficient to prove that he obeyed the orders of his superiors. Before the Archduke expressed himself in such contemptuous terms on the operations of a General, it would have been well to inform himself of the motives of his conduct.' — In our humble opinion, the Archduke has the best of the argument in this instance.

We pass over several other equally ill managed attacks on the Austrian Prince; which, as they regard mere matters of opinion, such as the note at p. 50., were scarcely worth the trouble bestowed on them. In fact, after having studied the general character and tenor of the work thus far, we begin to "*smell a rat*," if we may adopt a very coarse but appropriate expression; and we find that, as his precursor made use of the *carte blanche* of developing a system of strategy, in order to usher into the world a history of his own actions, so Marshal JOURDAN has taken the advantage afforded him by some slight aspersions on his fame, to give the public an insight into his heroic exploits. — Of these two strokes of generalship, we scarcely know which is the most skilful *ruse de guerre*.

Chapter VI. describes the passage of the Lahn, and the events which preceded the entry of the French into Frankfurt: while the seventh and eighth are occupied with unimportant actions. In the latter, we again find (p. 112.) some frivolous reflections against the Prince; and in the ensuing leaf we are told that, 'if ever an historian shall start up, animated by the love of truth, to sketch the principal traits of this campaign, we shall find its unhappy results, which are attributed by evil minded or ill informed writers* to the false combinations of JOURDAN, to be imputable only to that Directory which, from the Luxembourg, regulated those military operations, even in the heart of Germany.' — 'Such an historian will not dissimulate the want of judgment of General *Moreau*; and, by placing the conduct of the Archduke in its true light, will perhaps prove that he was sojourning *complaisamment* at Hachembourg, to receive the felicitations of his courtiers, when he ought to have been actively employed in pushing the army of the Sambre and Meuse,' &c. Perchance his Highness will reply by expressing a hope that this embryo historian will make himself master of the motives which actuated *his* conduct, before he treats him thus *contemptuously*: but the best part of this piece of satire is yet to come. After having lashed his enemy through the medium of his supposititious historiographer, the author continues: 'As for *us*, who are not obliged to revenge the wrongs of that General under whose orders the

* How very uneasy such a passage will make the Austrian leader, who in his own history manfully yet modestly acknowledges the errors of which he was guilty! See M. R. App. vol. lxxxvi. pp. 493, 494.

greater part of the most celebrated captains of France boast of having *débüté*, we who are full of respect for the character and admiration of the genius of the Archduke; — and we shall satisfy ourselves by merely relating facts, without intermixing our recital with any censorious reflections' !!

The first part or division of the work ends with this anomalous antithetical production, and ushers us to part the second, chapter I.; where we find descriptions of the march of the Archduke on the right bank of the Danube, the battles of Teining and Neumarkt, the retreat of the French army on Amberg, the action at that place, and the retreat on Schweinurt. At the very opening of this portion of the volume, we meet with these words: 'Although the General-in-chief was not able to conceive or execute a comprehensive and decisive movement, the great object of his instructions was now fulfilled;' and *the galled jade winces*, and shews that its *withers are not unwrung* in almost every subsequent page to the end of the book. Those actions in which the Archduke's principal efforts were made, and were crowned with success, are now usually styled '*affaires*,' and passed over with little other than general notice; and at page 123. we have this note, pompously brought forwards in italic illustration: 'The Archduke terminates his relation of the combat of Teining by these words: "*Towards night the enemy was obliged to retire*;" whereas *Bernadotte* preserved his position, and was not obliged to retire; though he made good his retreat at eleven at night, because he foresaw that his adversary, who had committed the fault of attacking with only a part of his force, might profit by his superiority to carry the feeble division which was opposed to him.' We may ask whether *Bernadotte* did not act, as Falstaff says, like a very wise Prince, by running away on instinct; and whether it may not still be possible that Marshal JOURDAN himself has not mistaken the hour of the day, as well as Prince *Charles* of Austria, whom he accuses of such a wilful error?

In pages 131. and 149., we perceive an attack on Marshal *Ney*, which shews us that the writer is somewhat of a *Gourgaudiste*: but we refer to the text for farther explanation. *Kleber* and *Moreau* also come in for their share of condemnation; and in fact neither his own companions in arms nor the leaders opposed to him seem to have done any thing that was right in the eyes of Monsieur JOURDAN. Perhaps, therefore, the irascible feelings of those whose military characters he thus impugns may give us another opportunity of examining the merits of this campaign.

We cannot refrain from quoting the *modest* conclusion of this section of the work. Having abused *Ney* virulently, the author says, 'If any other person than JOURDAN had extricated himself so honourably from a similar situation, the trumpets of Fame * would not have sufficed to proclaim this exploit: but JOURDAN, a stranger to all kinds of intrigue, was ignorant of the art of raising a reputation in the journals; and thus his enemies have had but too much facility in attributing false combinations and the reverses of this campaign to him.'

Chapters II., III., and IV., comprize the rest of the second part, and contain details of the battle of Wurtzburg; the retreat of the French army on the Lahn, the blockade of Mayence, the battles on the Lahn, and the retreat of the army on the Rhine. In perusing the account of these events, we can perceive no very great omission or partiality in the detail of the same operations by the Archduke, whose volumes agree certainly much better with the generally received notions of that military epoch.

That we can conceive that Marshal JOURDAN is not a General of such talents as the Prince of Austria, we trust the former will excuse: but he shall not find us joining in the absurd clamour, which has been so liberally heaped on him for his conduct in the retreat of the army of the Sambre and Meuse. On the contrary, we are disposed to give him every credit for the masterly manner in which he accomplished that action, in the face of a victorious and superior enemy, with unpaid and almost undisciplined troops, who existed solely by marauding; even the Generals and officers having received only *eight francs* per month for their subsistence: a sum, says the author, more insulting than it was insufficient. It must not be forgotten, too, that all his movements were subject to the controul of a set of unmilitary men, gorging themselves in the capital of France, hundreds of miles from the seat of war, on the prey of those nobles and citizens who had fallen victims to their thirst for blood.

Justificatory documents, to the number of forty-three, swell and conclude this work. They consist of letters, orders, dispatches, &c., which passed between the Directory, JOURDAN, *Moreau*, and other leaders, concerning the events of the campaign of 1796. Some of them are highly interesting, but too long for us to quote. Of course, they are all in the phraseology of the revolutionary times, when *Citoyen Géné-*

* The Marshal should recollect that Fame is often depicted with two trumpets, of very different tenor, as *Hudibras* observeth.

ral occupied the superscription which was so soon afterward to be changed to *Monseigneur le Maréchal Prince de "Je ne sais quoi."*

Our report now draws to its end; and, in passing our final sentence on Marshal JOURDAN's work, we would say, Let it be carried from the reading-table, and placed in a vacant space next to that of his Imperial Highness: from which station it may be removed at the pleasure of the future historian, whom we would counsel not to disbelieve more than he chuses of that production, since the Ex-marshal has evidently been too much guided by irritation in his censures of it.

ART. III. *Mémoires de la Classe des Sciences Mathématiques, &c.; i.e. Memoirs of the Class of Mathematical and Physical Sciences in the Institute of France, for the Years 1813, 1814, and 1815.* 4to. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz.

WE have here the last volume which is to be published under the title of *Mémoires de l'Institut*; another change in the denomination of this Society having taken place, and the old name of *Académie* being henceforwards to be combined with the former. It contains the labours of the class of Mathematics and Physics for the Years 1813, 1814, and 1815, and has rather a larger portion of its contents dedicated to mathematical subjects, than several of the preceding volumes.

MATHEMATICS.

The volume opens with the customary analysis, by the Chevalier *Delambre*, of the labours of the class during the period above stated: which being much longer than the usual interval, the paper is necessarily occupied by short notices of the various memoirs, works, and machines, which have been presented to the Institute in the course of that time. M. *Delambre* commences his task with an exposition of a memoir by M. *Laplace*, relative to the variations in the elements of the orbits of the planets and comets, in which much is made to depend on the doctrine of probabilities; and which, we must beg to add, appears to require all the celebrity of its author to render it interesting as a philosophical inquiry, or to allow of its being so considered. We are indeed convinced that, had the same memoir been laid before the public by any man less known in the scientific world than *Laplace*, it would have been rejected as a mere speculation, unworthy of the attention of philosophers. Let us once admit

that the particular motions, directions, inclinations, magnitudes, &c. of the most remote, as well as the nearest, of the heavenly bodies are the works of an all-powerful and all-wise Deity, and every speculation founded on mere probability falls to the ground; because such conjecture can apply only to matters of chance, and not to those in which design is every where apparent.

It will be remembered by most of our readers that Sir W. Herschel has stated, in some of his communications to our Royal Society, that he had noticed throughout the heavens a feebly luminous matter, in which he could distinguish certain points that appeared to him more dense and bright than the other parts. He also conjectured that the operation of universal gravitation may in time unite all the nebulous matter encompassing those points into distinct masses; and that then, in consequence of their mutual attraction, two or more of these centres may acquire a motion of translation, which may bring them within the sphere of attraction of our sun, and thus supply us with so many new comets. The orbits of such new comets must necessarily be some of the conic sections; and the object of M. *Laplace* seems to be to determine the probabilities of their being circular, elliptical, parabolic, or hyperbolic. We shall not detain the reader by giving him the number of chances to one in favour of this or that curve: the whole inquiry being, in our opinion, undeserving of serious notice.

The reporter next refers to a memoir by M. *Burckhardt* relative to the masses of the planets, which is of a much more tangible nature. Those planets, which are attended by satellites, may have their masses determined accurately; or at least with all the accuracy that is consistent with the nature of the observations by which their elongations are ascertained: but those which have no satellite, as Mercury, Venus, and Mars, can only have their masses determined by ascertaining the effect which each produces in disturbing their respective elliptic motions.

That this investigation is a matter of great delicacy and difficulty will be obvious, when we consider the nature of the forces, and their combined and reciprocal action on each body; and moreover the comparatively small change which is produced by this action, in the planetary orbits. It would, therefore, not be surprizing if some very important errors have been committed in this respect, and to this inquiry the present author has directed his attention. Several corrections are in consequence proposed, the greatest being that which relates to the mass of Venus: this M. *Burckhardt* reduces one-
ninth:

ninth : but the others are much less considerable ; and, on the whole, this computation tends materially towards confirming the accuracy of preceding determinations, and of those solar tables to which astronomers have generally had recourse. The length of the mean year, according to M. *Burckhardt's* result, is 365 d., 5 h., 48', 49''·7 ; which M. *Delambre*, in the second volume of his *Astronomy*, stated to be 365 d., 5 h., 48', 50'' ; differing from the above only by 0''·3.

The succeeding notices relate to such works as have been presented to the Institute during the year 1813, which it will be sufficient to name ; viz. *Exercice du Calcul Intégral*, &c. by *Legendre* ; Observations on the great Comet of 1807, by *Schroeter* ; Theory of Analytical Functions, by *Lagrange* ; and some others, which have been already mentioned in different numbers of our Review.

We pass now to the labours of the class for 1814 ; in which, however, we find so little to claim our attention, that we shall merely offer a few remarks with reference to a memoir by M. C. DUPIN, on *Floating Bodies*. This paper we conceive to have some claim to novelty ; the author having taken, as far as we are able to judge, an entirely new view of this interesting subject. The investigations of *Bouguer* and *Euler* have been hitherto considered as the most elaborate of any which had yet appeared on this branch of hydrodynamics : but M. *Dupin* employs a geometry unknown in their time, and this instrument appears to have led him to several new and important results. He considers under one general point of view all the positions that a body can take while floating on the same fluid, its weight and form being supposed to be constant.

In order that a floating body may be *in equilibrio*, it is necessary that its centre of gravity should be in the same vertical as the centre of gravity of that part which is immersed in the fluid. The latter is denominated by French authors the *carène* : and the horizontal plane, by which it is terminated at the level of the fluid, is called the *plane of floatation*. Now the weight of the body being supposed to be constant, that of the *carène* will be so likewise ; and consequently, if by changes in the interior of the body we cause its centre of gravity to take all possible positions, without in any respect changing its exterior form, we shall find for the different states of the same body an infinite number of planes of floatation. Each of these *carènes* has its centre of volume in a particular point, and consequently there are also an infinite number of centres of *carène* ; which points, together form a surface that is called the *surface of the centres of carène*. All the planes of float-

ation are tangents to another surface; which, with reference to those planes, is of the same kind as those which M. *Monge*, in his “*Descriptive Geometry*,” denominates *enveloppes*, and which, therefore, M. *Dupin* calls *la surface enveloppe de flotations*. Although we cannot enter farther into the views of M. *Dupin*, it will be evident, from what has been stated, that he has considered the subject much more generally than even *Euler* and *Bouguer*; and he has therefore been able not only to deduce all the results of these and other authors, but to arrive at many curious and interesting conclusions not before known, with regard to the properties of floating bodies of different figures.

The analysis of the labours of the class for the year 1815 opens, like that of the two preceding years, with an exposition of a memoir by M. *Laplace*, the subject being here the flux and reflux of the tides. This memoir, in its entire state, we have no doubt is highly interesting. The author seems to have taken an historical view of the question; and to have furnished his readers with a concise sketch of the observations and opinions of the ancients, relative to the connection between the flowing of the waters and the particular position and age of the moon. From these he passes to the theory and explication of Newton, and thence again to the more refined and delicate investigations of later writers. In the course of his observations, he notices the known fact of the ebb or the flow following only after some interval the meridian passage of the moon; and he adverts slightly to the ideas of different philosophers respecting the cause of this retardation. Among others, it seems that *Bernouilli* had attributed it in part to the rate of transmission of the lunar attraction, conceiving that, like light, the action was not instantaneous, but was propagated in time; consequently, since the effect of the lunar attraction is due to position, that action will not (if it be propagated in time) be effective till some period after the moon has quitted the particular position in question.

We should certainly have been inclined to adopt this explanation, as we cannot but deem it much more easy to imagine that the power of a distant body (of whatever kind it may be) is transmitted by radiations in a given time; than to conceive it to be instantaneous: but M. *Laplace*, without entirely giving up the idea of the propagation *in time*, has endeavoured to demonstrate that the velocity in question is incomparably greater than that of light; and that the chief cause of the retardation of the tides is the rapidity of the moon’s motion in her orbit, combined with the local circumstances of the port at which the phænomena are observed:
while

while it is very remarkable, also, that the same cause may increase the ratio which exists between the actions of the moon and sun. It is, however, admitted to be desirable that these deductions should be put to the test of very accurate observations; and such, it seems, are now making in the port of Brest, where a similar series was undertaken several years ago.

Another memoir by the same author follows the above; in which, again, the doctrine of probabilities is applied to philosophical inquiries, but not under the same objectionable form with that to which we have alluded in the beginning of this article: the object here being to decide, among many and various results, the probability that the errors do not exceed a certain quantity. We cannot, however, enter into a farther explanation of the views of the author, or of the deductions which he has drawn from his investigations.

Only one other article is given in the introductory part of the volume to which it will be necessary for us to pay particular attention; and, as this treats on a subject of great interest, the reader will not be displeased by our entering on it at some length. The memoir discusses the proper form and construction of Reflectors for Light-houses, by which the greatest effect may be produced with the least expenditure of materials. It is very well known that the internal surface of a hollow paraboloid possesses the singular property of reflecting all the rays of light issuing from its focus into a direction parallel to its axis; on which account it has been recommended as the proper form to be given to reflectors: but, as it is impossible to render the practice in this case strictly conformable to the theory, it becomes a question of some importance to determine how far we may deviate from the latter, so as to produce the best practical effect. For example, the theory supposes the light to be all condensed in a single point, whereas in practice the flame must be of some magnitude; consequently, as we increase the size of the light, we deviate more and more from the theory; and many of the rays, instead of being thrown off in parallel lines, will intercept and cross each other, and never reach an eye placed at a distance; while, on the other hand, by diminishing the flame, we approach nearer to the condition assumed in the theory: but the number of rays is thus so much reduced, that the reflector becomes inefficient on this account; and, consequently, there is somewhere between these extremes an intermediate point, at which the maximum practical effect may be obtained. The experiments detailed in the article before us were directed to this inquiry.

The

The first series of experiments was made on the 1st of October, 1813, in the garden of the *Dépot de la Marine*, with two reflectors, both of 81 metres opening, and 325 metres deep: perfectly parabolic, and similar to each other; the one carrying a lamp of which the wick was $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch in diameter, and the other an inch. Each was directed, with every possible precaution, perpendicularly to a white surface at the distance of 50 metres; and a very fine opaque body was placed at a small distance from this surface or screen, in the line of the axis of the two reflectors: by which two shadows were projected on it that served as a measure of the intensities of the two lights. *These experiments were decidedly in favour of the smaller wick.*

Similar experiments were afterward made on the least of the above wicks, with a still smaller one of $\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter, and with a third of only $\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter; when it was ascertained that the $\frac{1}{2}$ half inch wick had a decided advantage over that of $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch diameter, and that this last possessed an equal superiority over that of an inch.

In all these cases, however, the distance between the screen and the reflector was very inconsiderable; and it was judged desirable to make similar observations on the effects produced at greater distances, and with different angular directions. The distance then chosen was eight leagues, but the result was still the same; the small wick giving a much more intense light than that of $\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter, and this last affording a better light than that of an inch diameter. The quantity of oil consumed by the largest wick, in two hours and a half, was 245 grammes; and by the small wick, in the same time, only 122 grammes, or just one-half of the former. With respect to the greatest angular direction at which the reflectors were visible at this distance, it was found that 3° was the maximum; so that each light could only be seen in a sector of 6° arc; and consequently, in a light-house illuminated with an apparatus of this kind, it will be requisite either to make the reflector revolve, or to have several such reflectors, so disposed that their axes may not form with each other a greater angle than 6° .

Having given this sketch of the introductory article, we come now to the

MEMOIRS.

The first is by Baron RAMOND, relative to the barometrical measurement or levelling of *Monts Dore*s and *Monts Dômes*, on which it would be useless to offer any remarks within the narrow limits of a review. It is followed by another long paper,

paper, applying these measurements to the physical geography of the part of France in which they were made.

A memoir by M. CAUCHY contains the demonstration of a curious property of numbers, first proposed by M. *Fermat*, which is as follows: "Every number is either itself a triangular number, or the sum of two or three triangular numbers; a square, or the sum of two, three, or four squares; a pentagonal number, or the sum of two, three, four, or five pentagonals; and so on, for hexagonals, &c." Or the same may be more generally expressed thus: "If m represent the denomination of any order of polygonals, then is every number N the sum of m polygonals of that order; it being understood that any one or more of these polygonals may become zero."

The truth of this proposition, which has never before been generally demonstrated, rested merely on the assertion of *Fermat* that he possessed the method of proof: but it seems to have been lost, with several others of his papers, at his death, and modern analysts have sought in vain to recover it. *Lagrange* was, we believe, the first who demonstrated the partial case for the squares, by shewing that every prime number was the sum of one, two, three, or four squares; and that the product of any two numbers of the form

$$N = (w^2 + x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$$

and $N' = (w'^2 + x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2)$

was also a number of the same form. Afterward, M. *Legendre* demonstrated the first case: viz. for the triangular numbers; when no farther step was made till M. CAUCHY succeeded in producing the general demonstration contained in the memoir under review: which not only embraces the entire theorem of *Fermat*, but gives to it a still greater extension, or rather restriction: but, unfortunately, it is very long and intricate, and cannot be illustrated without employing much more space than we can allow to a single article in a work of this kind. We must therefore confine ourselves to a concise explanation of the process adopted by the author.

We have observed that M. CAUCHY has not only demonstrated the theorem of *Fermat*, but has rendered it still more general; viz. he has shewn that, whatever may be the order m of the polygonal, it must follow that of the m polygons of which it is composed, $m-4$ of them are equal either to unity or to zero: so that the enunciation may now be given thus: "Every number is either the sum of four pentagonals, or of that sum increased by unity; of four hexagonals, or of that sum increased by one or two units; of four heptagonals, or of that sum

sum

sum increased by one, two, or three units, and so on for any higher order."

The demonstration of this proposition is made to depend on the solution of the following problem: "*To decompose a given integral number into four squares, of which the roots shall be equal to another given number.*" This problem the author reduces to the decomposition of a given integer into three squares; shewing at the same time that, if a number be decomposable into four squares, of which the roots form a given sum, the quadruple of the same number may be decomposed into four squares; such that one of the roots shall be equal to the sum of the other roots. Hence it follows that the resolution in question can be effected only under certain conditions; as, for example, when the square of the given sum is less than the quadruple of the given integer, and the difference of the two numbers is decomposable into three squares: a condition which can obtain only when that difference is not of the form $4^m(8^n+7)$. Moreover, the given number, and the given sum, must be of the same kind, viz. both even or both odd; and when these three conditions have place, the solution may be effected, or rather it is not necessarily impossible: but, if to the above conditions we add the following, then the decomposition is possible, and in no other case; viz. that the given sum be superior, or equal, or inferior at least by unity, to a certain limit, of which the square, augmented by 2, shall be equal to triple the given number. Applying these principles to numbers of the form $2n+1$, and $4n+2$, the author shews that they may be always resolved into four squares, the sum of whose roots shall make a given sum, when this sum is a number of the same kind, and contained between two limits, of which the squares are respectively triple and quadruple of the given number. There are certain exceptions to this solution, which the author has pointed out. By the aid of these propositions, and some others of a similar kind, he has succeeded in demonstrating not only the proposition of M. *Fermat*, but also his own more restricted theorem, which obviously involves the former in it. No one can deny the conclusions of the author, but we cannot help suspecting that the demonstration lies within narrower limits.

Observations on the Nature of the Forces which separate the Rays of Light in Crystals endowed with the Property of Double Refraction. By M. BIOT. — Here the writer endeavours to shew that we ought, in conformity to the hypothesis adopted in electricity and magnetism, where we suppose two forces of an opposite kind, (distinguished in the one by the terms *resinous* and *vitreous*, and in the other by *austral* and *boreal*,) to
make

make a similar distinction in this case; and he accordingly adopts the terms *polarisation quartzeuse*, and *polarisation bérillée*, from the name of the two substances which first led to the discovery of these two opposite forces.

In order to manifest the propriety or necessity for this distinction, he proposes the following experiments: Conceive two plates of the same crystal and of any thicknesses, e and \acute{e} , both cut parallel to the axis of crystallization: place them one on the other, and transmit through them perpendicularly to their surface a luminous ray, polarized in one direction only: then analyze the transmitted light, by dividing it by means of a prism of Iceland spar; and the result will be two images, which will be white or coloured according to the ratio of the thickness of the plates, and the direction which we give to their axes of crystallization. If the axes, and consequently the principal sections, be parallel to each other, the tints of the two images will be the same as if we had only one plate equal to the thickness of both; that is, to $e + \acute{e}$: but, if the axes cross each other at right angles, the tints will be the same with those that are due to a single plate of the thickness $e - \acute{e}$.

This result will uniformly prevail with any two crystals of the same kind: but, when we employ crystals of the contrary species, then all the above phænomena are reversed; viz. when the axes are parallel to each other, the tints will be those that are due to a single plate of the thickness $e - \acute{e}$; and when at right angles to each other, those that are due to a plate of which the thickness is equal to the sum $e + \acute{e}$.

After having reported these experiments in justification of the new terms which he has introduced, M. BIOT proceeds to state some other facts connected with his theory; most of which, however, being found in his *Traité de Physique*, in a more embodied form than in the present paper, we shall not detain the reader with farther particulars: especially as it would require considerable space to give any thing like an intelligible analysis of the author's ideas on this interesting subject. The same may likewise be remarked with reference to the subsequent division of the memoir, containing *Observations on the Nature of the Forces which produce Double Refraction*; and to a following memoir by M. AMPERE, relative to a theorem whence we may deduce all the laws of ordinary and extraordinary refraction.

On the Motion of Fluids in Capillary Tubes, and the Influence of Temperature on that Motion. By M. GIRARD. — After an introduction, in which the author takes a concise view of the experiments and investigations of different philosophers on
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the velocity of water in open canals, and in close pipes, he proceeds to a detail of his own experiments on the motion of fluids through capillary tubes of different lengths, diameters, &c.; the performance of which must have required great time and attention. As it would be useless for us to endeavour to follow him through this part of his memoir, we shall confine ourselves to the statement of his several results, which are certainly not devoid of interest; although, on the whole, it must be admitted that the inquiry is a matter rather of curiosity than of utility. The deductions to which we allude are these :

‘ 1. Under any charge or head of water, when the capillary tube, through which the fluid runs, attains to a certain length, the term of the expression, which is proportional to the square of the velocity, disappears from the general formula of uniform motion.

‘ 2. The limit of the length of the tube, at which the square of the velocity disappears, is so much the more distant from the origin of the tube, as the head of water above its orifice is more considerable.

‘ 3. All other things being the same, the length of the tube at which the motion of the fluid becomes linear, that is, when the square vanishes, is the greater, as its diameter is greater.

‘ 4. When the motion of the water in the tube is become linear, the variation in the temperature produces such an influence on the discharge that, between the limits of 0° and 86° of the centigrade thermometer, the products vary as much as in the ratio of 1 to 4.

‘ 5. Within the limit at which the motion begins to be linear, and when by the diminution of its length the tube is reduced to a simple adjutage, the product of the discharge will vary only in the ratio of 5 to 6, for a thermometrical interval of 0° and 87° .

‘ 6. The co-efficient of the first power of the velocity, which enters into the expression for the retarding force of the linear motion, varies with the diameters of the tube.

‘ 7. The co-efficients of the velocity, which are different in tubes of different diameters, approach so much the more nearly to identity as the temperature is higher.

‘ 8. Whatever may be the diameter of a capillary tube, the variations in the products, from one degree of temperature to another, are so much the more considerable as the temperature is lower.

‘ 9. The variability, which expresses the ratios of the discharges at different degrees of temperature, manifests itself with so much the more regularity, as the observations are made on tubes of smaller diameters.

‘ 10. Temperature, which has so great an influence in the discharge of capillary tubes, ceases to have any sensible effect in tubes of ordinary conduit and in open canals.’

In succeeding observations, M. GIRARD undertakes to illustrate the above experimental deductions, to found on them a general theory of the motion of fluids through capillary tubes, and thence to explain certain natural phænomena: but our readers must excuse us from following him through the intricate mazes into which he is necessarily led in this abstruse inquiry.

The volume concludes with a paper by M. POINSOT, on some new *Inquiries respecting Algebra and the Theory of Numbers*: — but we have not yet noticed M. Cuvier's analysis of the labours of the *Physical Class*, which occupies above a hundred pages, and the consideration of which we must for the present defer. Indeed, the productions of this Society multiply so fast on us, that we shall not perhaps find an opportunity for a report of M. Cuvier's details. — No Physical Memoirs occur in the volume.

ART. IV. *Mémoires de l'Académie Royale des Sciences de l'Institut de France*: i. e. Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences in the Institute of France, for the Year 1816. Vol. I. 4to. Paris. 1818.

WE have intimated, at the commencement of the preceding article, the change which has been effected in the name of this Society; and a royal ordonnance, prefixed to the volume before us, gives a detail of the whole regulation. As the reader will see from the title just quoted, the word *Institut* is still preserved as the basis of denomination, and the body is divided into four parts, or Academies, as they are termed; which are intitled, 1. The French Academy; 2. The Royal Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres; 3. The Royal Academy of Sciences, and 4. The Royal Academy of the Fine Arts. Each of these Academies has its particular constitution, rules, and members; and each, we suppose, is to publish its separate transactions.

The present volume opens, as usual, with the history of the labours of the class; the Mathematical part by the Secretary, M. Delambre, and the Physical by M. Cuvier. Our immediate attention must be directed to the former.

MATHEMATICS.

The Secretary commences with a mere enumeration of various memoirs which have been presented to the Academy in the course of the year 1816, and afterward enters more at length into an explanation of certain others. The first that

we shall select for a few remarks is a memoir by M. *Burckhardt*, relative to the *Georgium Sidus*, or *Uranus*.

After this planet had been first discovered by Herschel, astronomers applied themselves with great assiduity to observe its motions, and to compute a table of them: but, its distance being immensely great, and its annual motion proportionally small, many years must necessarily elapse before the elements of its orbit could be determined to the greatest degree of precision. It fortunately occurred to *Bode*, however, that, as this planet, when seen through a telescope, has the appearance of a star of the fifth magnitude, it would in all probability have been observed and entered as such in the catalogues of different astronomers. Under this impression, he examined the catalogues of Flamsteed and Mayer, and found that it had really been observed by both these astronomers, though they were not aware of its being more than a simple star. The former observation was made in 1690, and the latter in 1755. *Le Monnier* had also seen it three times; first in 1764, and twice in 1768: but still no idea was yet entertained of its planetary nature.

The same planet was again observed as a star by Bradley, on the 3d of December, 1753, when its meridian passage took place at Greenwich, 5h. 32m. 34".8; and, since this observation was discovered by *Lindenau*, in the catalogue of Bradley, seven others have been found in the "Complete Catalogue of all the Stars observed by Flamsteed," published by Miss C. Herschel, the earliest of which was made in 1712: so that astronomers are thus put in possession of very unexpected resources for computing the orbit of this distant planet, and for correcting the elements, as first determined from observations made subsequent to Herschel's discovery. By these means, the motion of this body, although it has not yet completed more than one-third of its sidereal revolution since it was found to be a planet, is as accurately determined as those of the other planets of our system, which have been known from the highest antiquity.

The next notice relates to a second memoir, by M. *Burckhardt*, in which are stated several particulars relative to the comets of 1783 and 1793, which there seemed great reason to suppose were in fact the same comet; its appearance in 1793 being after two revolutions, and the period being supposed 5 years 7½ months. The computations of M. *Burckhardt*, however, afford ground for doubting this identity, though it is by no means certain that they are actually two distinct comets.

comet of 1815 seems to present some facts less understood more interesting than the preceding; since it is very probable that this comet has a determinate elliptic orbit, and its revolution is performed in 73 years. This result was obtained by the computation of Messrs. *Lindenau*, *W. Bessel*, and *Bessel*; and since by a second computation of another astronomer, founded on the basis of 187 observations in different parts of Germany and Italy: the whole made between the 6th of March and the 25th of the following August.

French astronomers had taken only 29 observations of the comet, between the 29th of March and the 29th of April; yet by means of these, and wholly independent of what had been done by the astronomers above named, M. *Delambre* arrived at conclusions very nearly the same as those of *Lindenau* and *Bessel*; a very remarkable circumstance considering that the observations were entirely distinct, which cannot fail of giving us great confidence in the accuracy of both. The elements of the orbit of this comet, according to the latter determination, are as follow:

Age of the perihelion, 26. April, 54857, mean time, reckoned from midnight, at Paris.

Longitude of perihelion,	-	-	149°	2'	58"
Inclination of orbit	-	-	44	30	45
Longitude of ascending node	-	-	83	26	50
Eccentricity	-	-	-	-	0.9305435
Perihelion distance	-	-	-	-	1.213090
Semi-axis major	-	-	-	-	17.46550
Real revolution in years	-	-	-	-	72.99110
Revolution direct.	-	-	-	-	-

celebrated comet of 1759, predicted by Halley, and of which the return has been indisputably observed, has its mean period about 75 years; that is to say, a shorter than the above. M. *Delambre* observes: 'Halley at 86 years of age, about 17 years before the return of the body which has added so much celebrity to his name; there is no better prospect of the astronomers who have succeeded him, his second prediction living to see it verified;'—a worthy reflection, which must frequently cross the mind of every practical astronomer.

One other notice occurs in this introductory chapter which we shall call the attention of our readers; and that is an memoir by M. *Hachette* on the discharge of water and fluids from vessels of different figures, and through apertures of various forms and sizes. It has been a received principle

principle in hydrodynamics that, the pressure being equal, and the area of the orifice remaining the same, the discharge will be the same also. This principle was verified to a certain extent by the experiments of *M. Hachette*: that is to say, while the orifice was circular, elliptical, triangular, or formed by an arc and chord of a circle: but he found the discharge to be very different when the circumference of the figure presented re-entering angles. If the orifice be circular, and the plane in which it is formed be not horizontal, the issuing fluid will describe a parabolic curve, corresponding to the initial velocity of projection, and which the author determined by direct measurement; calculating afterward the velocity of the fluid at a determined point. For example, at the point of greatest contraction, he found that the theory of *Torricelli*, when we refer it to this particular section of the issuing vein, was correct, but that it is not true with respect to the mean velocity of the particles of the fluid; or, which is the same, with respect to the area of the orifice.

In order to determine the quantity of contraction, by comparing the computed with the actual discharges, *M. Hachette* followed the directions laid down by *Bernouilli*; and a table given at the end of the memoir presents the results of twenty-eight experiments, made with different heads of water, from 135 to 888 millimetres, and for orifices which varied from 1 to 41 millimetres. The least contraction is $\cdot 781$, and is that which is due to the least orifice. For orifices above 10 millimetres, the contraction is nearly constant, being in all cases included between the limits $\cdot 60$ and $\cdot 63$; with an equality of orifice, the contraction augments a little with the height of the fluid: but it is independent of the direction of the jet. *Newton* found the contraction to be $\cdot 70$, and *Borda* $\cdot 60$: but many causes may be supposed to have a tendency towards producing these irregularities in the results of different experiments. *M. Hachette*, indeed, found that, all other things being the same, the discharge was least when the edges of the orifice in contact with the fluid were convex, and that it augmented when the surface was plane; as it did also still farther when the surface was concave, differing in the first and the last of these cases as much as in the ratio of 19 to 20.

Poleni had remarked that the discharge was augmented as much as a third part, by adding to the orifice a cylindrical adjutage, in length three times the diameter of the hole. *M. Venturi* found that, by giving a particular form to the adjutage, the discharge might be increased from 5, with the simple orifice, to 12; and this discharge has been even still farther

farther increased by *M. Clement*, by using a different adjutage from that which was recommended by *Venturi*.

The cause of this augmentation is that, in the latter cases, the water experiences less contraction, and is in fact discharged with a full tube: but it still remained to be explained why the tube was more completely filled in one case than in another. *M. Hachette* enters on this inquiry, and has succeeded in shewing that the principal cause is the adhesion of the water to the edges of the adjutage, viz. to the force which produces the capillary and other analogous phenomena.

The memoir, of which the above is a very concise extract, having been approved by the Academy, *M. Hachette* undertook to prosecute his inquiries still farther; and the detail of his experiments forms the subject of a second paper: but of this we can only undertake to give the final results, which may be thus stated:

1. When the height of the fluid above the orifice is very small, the vein of fluid may assume a form entirely different from that which belongs to a greater head of fluid, and which appears to be independent of the form of the orifice.

2. When the vessel, which contains the fluid, has dimensions very inconsiderable with respect to those of the orifice, the figure or section of the issuing vein is sensibly altered, and becomes very irregular: but this irregularity may always be made to disappear by augmenting the head of water.

3. All the above phenomena are sensibly the same, when mercury is substituted for the water.

4. Alcohol, of which the particles adhere less to each other than those of water, runs with more freedom; and the pressure, by which the fluid-vein detaches itself from the edges of the adjutage, is weaker than in the case of water.

5. If we substitute oil instead of water, the viscosity of the fluid very considerably augments the time of discharge, through small orifices; and, when the diameter of the orifice is a millimetre, the time of discharge for oil is to the time when the fluid is water in the ratio of 3 to 1.

6. The nature of the liquid is one of the principal causes, on which depends the continuity or discontinuity of the jet in discharges through capillary tubes.

7. The air about the orifice may modify the pressure which the fluid exerts on the orifice, and thus oppose a certain resistance to the issuing fluid: but *M. Hachette* could observe no difference in the form of the fluid-veins in air and in a vacuum, while he employed mercury and water, the orifice being triangular.

Several of these results must be considered as new facts in hydrodynamics; and the others are so many confirmations or modifications of the deductions of preceding writers.

Long biographical notices follow of MM. *Fleurieu*, *Bossut*, and *L'Evêque*: the former an officer in the navy, well known for his attention to maritime geography; the second an eminent mathematician; and the last an astronomer and hydrographer.

MEMOIRS.

On the Variation of constant Arbitraries in Problems of Mechanics, by M. POISSON. — This article occupies 70 quarto pages, and consists principally of very intricate analytical formulæ; the reader will therefore perceive that it would be useless for us to attempt any analysis of it in the space to which we are bound to confine our remarks.

On the Theory of Waves, by the same. — This is a subject which has engaged the attention of all the most celebrated modern analysts, since the time of Newton; who was contented with a certain approximate solution of this very difficult subject, by referring the motion of waves to that of water oscillating in a rectangular siphon: — that is, supposing a succession of waves, he assumed that the fluid particles which now formed the upper ridges became by the vibration the lowest; and that those which were the lowest ascended to occupy the place of the highest; making the force, which produced the motion, the weight of the elevated water, just as in the case of the siphon. He also demonstrated, admitting the hypothesis that, if we suppose a pendulum, of which the length is equal to the horizontal distance between the highest and the lowest point of the same wave, then the highest point will become the lowest in the same time as the pendulum would make one oscillation; and again, in the same time, the lowest point will have become the highest. The pendulum will therefore have made two oscillations during the time of one complete undulation of the wave; and, consequently, the distance between any two consecutive highest points being given, the time of an undulation may be computed.

Nothing can be desired more simple and elegant than this result, but unfortunately it is not well founded: it is indeed only proposed as an approximation, and it is obviously nothing more; because the particles of the fluid are supposed to ascend and descend in right lines, as in the rectangular siphon, instead of considering the curvilinear course which they actually take.

In Newton's time, analysis had not attained to a sufficient degree of generality, to be capable of meeting this question
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according to the general laws of the motion of fluids: but, since the extension which has been given to it by the invention of what is commonly called the theory of partial differences, this and many other analogous problems are susceptible of an accurate investigation; although the resulting equations are necessarily very intricate, and their reduction is effected only with considerable labour. To facilitate these operations is the object which M. Poisson has proposed to himself, and which he has accomplished in the present elaborate memoir.

On the linear Discharge of divers Liquids through capillary Glass Tubes, by M. GIRARD. — This is merely a continuation of the author's experiments and theory given in the preceding volume, and which we have already explained at some length.

On the Utility of the Laws of Polarization of Light, in order to know the State of Crystallization and Combination in a great Number of Cases in which the Crystalline System is not immediately observable, by M. BIOT. — As this memoir is extended to too great a length to admit of our giving any intelligible abstract of it, we must refer the reader either to the paper in question, or to the writer's *Traité de Physique*, where he will find the subject treated in the usual masterly style of its author.

M. Cuvier's report of the labours of the Physical Class yet remains; as also a paper by Count CHAPTAL on the sugar extracted from Beet-root: — *sed nunc manum de tabulâ.*

The volume for the year 1817 has reached us.

ART. V. *Histoire Naturelle des Animaux sans Vertèbres, &c.; i. e.*

The Natural History of Animals without Vertebrae, presenting the general and particular Characters of those Animals, their Distribution, Classes, Families, Genera, and the Definition of their various Species; preceded by an Introduction, exhibiting the Determination of the essential Characters of Animals in general, and the Circumstances which distinguish them from Vegetables and other Bodies: — in a Word, the Exposition of the essential Principles of Zoology. By the Chevalier DE LAMARCK, Member of the Royal Institute of France, of the Legion of Honour, &c. &c. 8vo. 5 Vols.; and Part the First of Vol. VI. Paris. 1815—19.

WE have more than once expressed our unbiassed sentiments of the character and merits of M. DE LAMARCK, as a naturalist and a writer; and the work which we have just announced very forcibly recalls the prominent features of

his philosophy, and of his manner of composition: for it manifests the same discriminating talents, the same love of orderly arrangement, and the same perspicuity and nervousness of style, blended with the same addiction to favourite theories, the same reiteration of assumed dogmas, and the same distortion of sound logic, which more or less pervade his voluminous lucubrations. Yet it is natural that we should attach much value to the results of our laborious exertions, and that the predilections of an author should instinctively lean to those productions of his pen, in which he flatters himself that he has displayed the largest portion of original and ingenious thinking; and the liberality of criticism, also, will not withhold indulgence from that self-complacency with which he reviews his performance of an extensive and arduous undertaking. We can readily excuse, therefore, the exaggerated estimate which this illustrious Professor appears to have formed of his own speculations, as well as of the systematical arrangements to which they have conducted him; and, in the overflowings of our charity, we even feel disposed to overlook his tiresome recurrence to a few leading ideas, and to defective trains of reasoning, because we are confidently persuaded that he has really rendered an important service to the public by bringing within their reach a continuous view of the most numerous and most varied portion of the animal kingdom. Had *Linné* existed at the present day, he would probably have been induced to re-mould the distribution of the invertebrated races, so as to adapt it to the state of our actual knowledge concerning them. It is doubtful, however, whether he could have enjoyed the multiplied and favourable opportunities which have fallen to the lot of the present writer; whose ardent enthusiasm and protracted habits of public teaching in one department of zoology, and whose access to his own rich collections, to those of the ample repositories in the French capital, to familiar intercourse with some of the first naturalists of Europe, and to the most recent observations of *Le Sueur*, *Péron*, *Desmarest*, *De Blainville*, *Cuvier*, *Savigny*, &c., at once powerfully seconded and enhanced his efforts of investigation and perseverance: but, emboldened by such respectable and efficient auxiliaries, he might, we apprehend, have exhibited a more copious enumeration of species, and have considerably augmented his lists of useful references.

Of the introduction, which occupies by far the largest portion of the first volume, we purposely forbear to speak, because it is little else than an enlarged abstract of the *Philosophie Zoologique*, to which we have already adverted at some length

length in Rev. vol. lxx. p. 473., and vol. lxx. p. 481.; and we shall not dwell, for a moment, on his grand division of invertebrated animals into the *Unfeeling* and the *Feeling*, because the total negation of feeling in any living creature whatever appears to us to be a mere gratuitous assumption. It will be of more consequence to apprize our physiological readers that the Chevalier DE L. ranges all the tribes, which he professes to illustrate, under some one of the following classes; *Infusoria*, *Polypi*, *Radiaria*, *Tunicata*, *Insecta*, *Arachnida*, *Crustacea*, *Annelides*, *Cirrhipeda*, *Conchifera*, and *Mollusca*: titles, perhaps, sufficiently appropriate, but which should have had similar terminations. The plan adopted in the illustration of each of these classes is to define its characters; next, to offer some general observations concerning it; then to state its divisions and subdivisions, accompanied by the requisite generic remarks; and, lastly, to particularize the genera and principal species, not unfrequently including those which are now known to occur only in a fossil state.

To these preliminary observations, we can venture to subjoin only a very summary notice of each class.

1. The infusorial animalcules are microscopical, gelatinous, and transparent, of various forms, and contractile, without any distinct mouth or determinate internal organ; frail and yielding corpuscles, scarcely possessing consistency, and yet continuing their generations by the extrusion of grains from openings or fissures in their body; exhibiting, in short, the lowest and most simple known condition of animal organization. That their movements are effected by no intrinsic energy, but by the partial agitation of the fluids in which they reside, as alleged by the author, seems to be extremely questionable. They are here divided into two orders; namely, the *Naked*, or those that are destitute of external processes, and the *Appendiculated*, or those which are furnished with them. The first is again sub-divided into two sections, according as their body is thick or membranous. Of the first description are the genera, *Monas*, *Volvox*, *Proteus*, *Enchelis*, and *Vibrio*; and of the second, *Gonium*, *Cyclidium*, *Paramecium*, *Kolpoda*, and *Bursaria*. The second order, again, consists of four genera, designated *Trichoda*, *Kerona*, *Cercaria*, and *Eureocerca*. Thus it will be found that, with a view to facilitate the study of these very singular diminutive living bodies, the Chevalier DE LAMARCK has somewhat reduced the generic catalogue of Muller: but his exposition of the tribe would have derived additional interest from a more detailed statement of the observations of Spallanzani, and others, on some of the species.

The different sorts of *Monas* occur only when the weather manifests a certain degree of warmth; when they may be found in sluggish, or stagnant water, either fresh or salt, in animal and vegetable infusions, and, more rarely, in pure water. *Volvox globator* is perceptible to the naked eye, but the other species are microscopical. Their rotatory and whirling motions can scarcely be explained on the principle that the creatures are so affected by the local movements of the circumambient fluid, which ought to communicate similar gyrations to the other species. — The *Paramecia* afford the most obvious exemplification of the mode of reproduction by scission.

2. The *Polypi* are thus defined: ‘Gelatinous animals, having the body elongated, contractile, and furnished with no other internal viscus than an alimentary canal, with one opening. Mouth distinct, terminal, and either provided with moveable cilia or surrounded with tentacula, or radiating lobes. They are furnished with no known appropriate organ of feeling, respiration, or fecundation. Their reproduction is effected by buds, or gems; sometimes external, sometimes internal, and sometimes agglomerated. Most of them adhere to one another, mutually communicate, and form compound animals.’ — In this extensive and singularly interesting class of animals, the mouth, which is the only opening of the alimentary tube, may likewise be regarded as the vent. They are propagated either by gems or sections. The former, which participate of life in common with their parent-stock, after having acquired sufficient growth to procure their own nourishment, separate and form new generations; and this is done with such wonderful rapidity, that several colonies are detached in the course of a day, and the child, in the same short space of time, becomes a father or even a grandfather. The larger species, however, furnish fewer young than the smaller; and cold arrests the multiplication of all, so that they are incessantly fruitful only under the Line, or in its neighbourhood. Their second mode of increase is by natural or by accidental sections. A portion of the body, small or large, separates, and becomes a perfect animal. Some may even be cut into a hundred fragments, every one of which will retain its vitality, and assume a complete form. In our temperate climates, most of the *Polypi*, especially the *Hydræ*, perish before the winter, but not until they have dispersed over the water multitudes of minute grains, which unfold in the spring, and appear as lively as if they had been freshly detached from their parent. The destruction, however, of many of these unprotected races, is nearly

nearly as rapid as their growth; for they encounter millions of enemies in fishes, worms, and insects; and they mutually devour one another, although some of them appear to be incapable of digesting their own species. The corruption of the water which they inhabit, a sudden storm, and other accidents, likewise occasion among some of the families very extensive ravages. The smaller sorts principally subsist on infusorial animalcules, but the larger sometimes swallow animals as bulky and strong as themselves. Many of them partake at once of an independent and of a common existence; and all of them seem to be more or less attracted by light. Such of them as construct habitations mostly abound in the seas of the torrid zone, and, frail as they are, give rise to those immense coral beds and islands which impede navigation, and change the aspect of whole tracts of coast; their numbers probably exceeding those of all other animals combined. Their animal nature, suggested by *Imperati* in 1699, was proved in 1727 by *Peyssonel*, and confirmed in 1740 by the highly interesting observations of *Trembley*, whose memoirs are perfect models of physiological analysis; and we ought not to pass unnoticed the names of *Marsigli*, *Baster*, *Donati*, *Boccone*, *Degeer*, *Réaumur*, *De Jussieu*, *Pallas*, *Bruguière*, and *Cavolini*. *Girod-Chantrans*, reviving the notions of many of the elder naturalists, has ranked in this class of animals the *Confervæ*, *Nostocs*, and *Oscillariæ*, but without sufficient foundation, as *Müller*, *Vaucher*, and others, have satisfactorily shewn.

M. DE L. divides the Polypi into five orders, intitled, the *Ciliated*, *Naked*, *Sheathed*, *Tubiferous*, and *Floating*. The first are furnished with moving or turning *cilia*, which agitate the water, and draw in the animal's prey. On account of their distinct mouth, they have been detached from *Müller's Infusoria*. They multiply both by sections and gems; and several of them possess the extraordinary property of remaining for a long while in a state of apparently lifeless desiccation, and reviving when moistened. They are ranged under two sections, namely, the *Vibratile*, of which the *cilia* move with interrupted vibrations; and the *Rotiferous*, which have one or two ciliated, but rotatory organs at the mouth. Under the former, are ranked *Rattulus*, *Trichocerca*, and *Vaginicola*; and under the latter, *Folliculina*, *Brachionus*, *Furcularia*, *Urcularia*, *Vorticella*, and *Tubicolaria*. The genuine station of *Brachionus*, however, seems to be still doubtful; and, if it really has jaws and deposits eggs, it ought to take its place among the *Crustacea*. The *Vorticellæ* are either simple or compound: but even the latter are so minute, that an entire

mass of them appears to the naked eye only like a speck of mould. *Tubicularia* has been instituted from a resemblance to the *Tubulariæ* of fresh water, and includes the *Flower-polypus* of *Schæffer*, with some of the *Rotiferi* of *Dutrochet*.

The *Naked Polypi* construct no habitation, but are fixed either permanently or at pleasure, and exhibit variously formed tentacula for the purpose of seizing their prey, and not for agitating the water. They are large enough to be visible to the naked eye. Some of them inhabit the sea, and others live in fresh or stagnant waters. The known genera are *Hydra*, *Coryne*, *Pedicellaria*, and *Zoantha*. The history of the *Hydra*, or *Fresh-water Polype*, has been ably unfolded by *Trembley*, whose interesting observations and experiments stimulated other naturalists to examine the species with particular attention; and the substance of the most important of their discoveries is briefly stated in the present work. The different sorts of *Coryne* are characterized by the vesicular club to which their tentacula are attached. Their mouth, which is very apparent, contracts and dilates in a remarkable manner. To the three species of *Pedicellaria* formerly described, the author adds the *Rotifera*, which he found among the spines of a sea-urchin. *Zoantha* here includes *Actinia Sociata* of *Ellis*, and *Hydra Sociata* of *Gmelin*.

The *Sheathed* families, or those which inhabit *Polyparies*, are extremely numerous and diversified. Their habitations, which are sometimes corneous, sometimes calcareous, and sometimes simply membranous, or even approaching to gelatinous, present masses variously ramified or dendistical; and, occasionally, only crustaceous, or foliaceous, or reticular, originating in transudations from the included animals. The cells are short, lengthened, tubular, stellular, &c. M. DE L. enters into a minute, ingenious, and satisfactory discussion, to prove that these habitations are as much the produce of their occupiers as shells are of their respective tenants; and that, consequently, *Cuvier* was probably misled by *Linné* and *Pallas*, when, in his *Elementary View of Natural History*, he embraced the doctrine of intus-susception, and endeavoured to justify the propriety of the term *zoophytes*, or *animal-plants*. This department is distributed into seven sections, according as their polyparies are *fluvialile*, *vaginitiform*, *reticular*, *perforated*, *lamelliferous*, *corticiferous*, or *pasty*. To the first belong *Diffugia* and *Cristatella*, which have their polyparies free, and floating in the water; and *Spongilla* and *Alcyonella*, which have them fixed on bodies in the water. The history of *Diffugia* is still very imperfectly developed, and its station in the system is only provisional, as future observers

may possibly assign to it a very different place. *Spongilla* includes those ambiguous productions which are commonly termed *Fresh-water Sponges*: but, like the preceding, its rank is not yet distinctly ascertained.

Section II. constitutes a well-characterized groupe, of which the polyparies consist of a single substance, with slender, fistulous, membranous, corneous, flexible, and phytoidal stems, including the polypes. Most of them are very finely ramified, like extremely delicate plants.

• The polypes contained in the *vaginiform polyparies*, communicating with one another by their posterior portion, probably give rise to the existence of a common living and very fragile body, whose life is independent of that of the individuals which it animates. We are, in fact, warranted to suppose that the tubes of these polyparies are filled with a gelatinous living body, more durable than the individuals which it produces; gradually perishing at one extremity, and at the same time increasing at the other. It is to this common body that each polype adheres by its posterior extremity.

• In proportion as these adhering polypes are multiplied by gemmations, which do not separate, the common body is obliterated and progressively dried up in its lower part: but it continues to live in the rest of its extent, even increasing in its upper part, and incessantly developing new individuals. Thus, while it nourishes all the polypes, and continually produces others, this living and medullary body successively increases or enlarges the polypary, multiplies its ramifications, and periodically forms, besides the distinct inseparable gems, those particular sacs or vesicles which contain others, and which, detaching themselves, and falling on the contiguous bodies, contribute to multiply the polypary.

• It results from this order of things that, in proportion as the polypary becomes old, by the continuity of new generations of polypes which succeed to it, the stalks of some of them are at first filled below with corneous matter, and then become almost entirely thick, assume a fruticose aspect, and grow stiffer and harder: but their tops, and especially their ramifications, remain fistulous.

• I mentioned that the common body of the polypes of these polyparies produced, in succession, two sorts of gems; namely, some which are not separable, and which multiply the polypes of the same polypary; and others destined to be separated from it, and to form other polyparies of the same species. These last are usually produced in groupes, like paquets or little bunches, and are inclosed in appropriate pouches or vesicles; which may be observed, at certain seasons, on the stalks or branches, or in the axillæ of these polyparies. These gemmiferous pouches are detached and fall when quite mature, and give origin to new polyparies, fixed to adjoining marine bodies, in proportion as the polypes are unfolded and multiplied.'

The genera to which these remarks refer are, *Plumatella*, *Tubularia*, *Cornularia*, *Campanularia*, *Sertularia*, *Antennularia*, *Plumularia*, *Serialeria*, *Liriozoa*, *Cellaria*, *Anguinaria*, *Dichotomaria*, *Tibiana*, *Acetabulum*, and *Polyphysa*. Of these the first has been detached from *Tubularia*, because the tentacula have no visible rim at their origin, and are generally furnished with cilia, disposed either in whorls or plumes; besides that all the species inhabit fresh water. Several of the other new denominations are founded on distinctions not less manifest, although we cannot notice them in detail. *Sertularia*, though now reduced by dismemberments, contains many beautiful species; some of which have been brought to light by *Péron* and *Le Sueur*, whose collections have not a little contributed to the value of the present volume.

To the third section belong *Flustra*, *Tubilipora*, *Discopora*, *Cellepora*, *Eschara*, *Adeona*, *Retepora*, *Alveolites*, *Ocellaria*, and *Dactylopora*. *Adeona* is nearly allied to *Eschara*, yet sufficiently distinguished from it by a remarkable stalk. Most of the *Alveolites*, and both species of *Ocellaria*, occur only in a fossil state. The solitary species appertaining to *Dactylopora* is synonymous with the *Rétéporite* of *Bosc*.

In the fourth section we arrive at polyparies which are stony, solid, and internally compact, having their cells perforated or tubular, and not furnished with laminae: characters which apply to *Ovulites*, *Lunulites*, *Orbulites*, *Ditichopora*, *Millepora*, *Favosites*, *Catenipora*, and *Tubipora*. Of these, the first, second, third, and sixth, are found fossilized; but one species of *Orbulites*, namely, the *marginalis*, inhabits the seas of Europe, on corallines, fuci, &c. and was discovered by *M. Sionest* of Lyons. *Distichopora* has been instituted for the sake of including *Millepora violacea* of *Pallas*.

The plated or lamellated structure of the polyparies distinguishes the genera of the fifth section, whose denominations we need not even enumerate. Suffice it to say that they comprehend many of the madrepores of *Linné*, and others, more systematically arranged than heretofore, and with the addition of several recently discovered species.

Section VI., the *Corticiferous*, is composed of *Corallium*, *Melitæa*, *Isis*, *Antipathes*, *Gorgonia*, and *Corallina*. The first comprizes only one species, namely, the *Isis nobilis* of *Linné*, or *Gorgonia nobilis* of *Ellis* and *Solander*; and *Melitæa* has been detached from *Isis* on account of its imperfect articulations.

‘ The *corallines* being corticiferous polyparies of considerably reduced dimensions, we can easily conceive that their polypes ought to

to be extremely minute; and, although it is probable that the organization of these polypes is analogous to that of those of the other corticiferous polyparies, the point cannot be positively ascertained. M. *Lamouroux* asserts that he has seen in the sea fibrils which projected beyond the incrustation, and suddenly re-entered on the slightest agitation of the water. Ellis likewise saw them, and has even represented them. They are apparently analogous to those which *Donati* observed in the *acetabulum*. These fibrils are capillaceous, and of an extraordinary degree of tenuity. We may suppose that they are very attenuated tentacula, and in this case proportionally more elongated than in others; and that their office is limited to the duty of approximating the water to the mouth of the little polype which bears them.'

'In general, the *corallines* form elegant tufts, or minute bushes, very delicately ramified, often corymbiform, and which bear a striking resemblance to plants. We have just seen, however, that they are genuine polyparies; that their stalks and their ramifications have a filiform axis, full, sub-cartilaginous, or horny; and that this axis is enveloped by a calcareous crust, divided, or interrupted at intervals, which renders it conspicuously articulated, and increases the flexibility of the stalks and branches. Some of the species have even a knotty appearance throughout, and hence were, by *Imperati*, denominated nodularian (*nodulariæ*).'

Most of the families of the seventh section are thick, very soft in the recent state, but acquiring consistency and often toughness when dried. The genera are *Penicillus*, (detached from *Corallina*,) *Flabellaria*, *Spongia*, *Tethya*, *Geodia*, and *Alcyonium*. The Chevalier treats of the sponges with much ingenuity, and throws considerable light on their hitherto very obscure history: but, for particulars, we must refer to the original. In his exposition of *Alcyonium*, he has been chiefly guided by the not less ingenious observations of *Savigny*.

The discoveries of the last-mentioned naturalist suggested the institution of the Tubiferous Order; which comprizes groupes of Polypi, attached to a common, fleshy, and living body, either lobed or ramified, and uniformly fixed by the base. These are devoid of an external polypary, and of an internal solid axis; their pulpy surface being entirely or partially invested with a multitude of tubiform cylinders, which are seldom wholly retractile. *Savigny*, with his well-known ability, has explained their organization. Their genera are limited to *Anthelia*, *Xenia*, *Ammonothea*, and *Lobularia*; and the species are far from numerous.

To the order of floating polypi belong all those that adhere to a common body, which is free, elongated, fleshy, living, and which envelopes an inorganic, cartilaginous, almost osseous, and sometimes stony, axis: consequently, the most

compound and singular of this extraordinary class of animals. Viewed in its dried state, indeed, the common body assumes the appearance of a polypary, but it is the appearance only; for examination at once reveals that it must have been endued with organization and life. The common volition attributed to the polypes, in order to account for their isochronous motions, finds no place in the Chevalier's creed, because it does not suit the exigencies of his system: yet he certainly has not disproved its existence. Many of the species, like the soft *Radiaria*, are phosphorescent and luminous in the water. The known genera are, *Veretillum*, *Funiculina*, *Pennatula*, *Renilla*, *Virgularia*, *Encrinus*, and *Umbellularia*, most of which have been dismembered from *Pennatula*, or *Sea-pen*, to which *Linné* and *Pallas* had given too much extension.

‘The *Encrini* are eminently distinguished from the sea-pens and the other genera of the order of floating polypi, by the articulated axis of their stem and branches; a character which is exclusively their own. We can no longer doubt that the *encrinites*, or sea-palms, of our collections, are the remains of the compound animals in question; remains which are usually found only in the fossil state, in soils of antient formation, and of which we scarcely ever meet with any but fragmented individuals, or separate portions. The stalk of the *encrini* exhibits an articulated axis, most frequently stony, and invested with a flesh of apparently inconsiderable thickness. The stony articulations of this axis, which are most commonly found separated from one another, constitute the *Star-stones*, *trochites*, and *entrochites*, as they are denominated in cabinets of natural history, and which are mentioned in a very obscure manner in various works on fossils.

‘Not only do the *encrini* constitute a particular genus, very distinct from the other floating polypes, by reason of their articulated stem, but it should seem that this genus is very numerous in species; for the columns which form the *entrochi* of our collections are very much diversified. Some, in fact, are cylindrical, and either smooth or tuberculated; others are angular, with four, five, or ten faces; presenting, moreover, a multitude of particulars which discriminate the species, and demonstrate that they are numerous. Of nearly all these species, we know only portions of the stony and articulated column which constitutes their axis; and all these portions are in the fossil state. The origin of *star-stones*, *entrochi*, &c. was unascertained until a live and complete *encrinus* was drawn from the sea; and although this, which is preserved in the Museum, is a particular species, it has thrown sufficient light on the true nature of the others.

‘There is reason to believe that the *encrini* principally inhabit the great depths of the sea; and, though they are free bodies, they seem to float less in the bosom of the waves, or, at least, to
 approach

approach the surface of the sea less than the *pennatulæ*, since the opportunities of catching them are so rare.'

We have extracted the above passage because, when conjoined with some interesting particulars recorded in Parkinson's Organic Remains, (see Rev. vols. i. ii. iii. xlvii. lix. and lxx. N. S.) it contains almost all the authentic information that has been obtained relative to these curious animal productions. The species denominated *Caput Medusæ* has been found in a recent state in the West Indies; and we have seen the drawing of a specimen of the *Liliiformis*, which was found also in a recent state in Barbadoes. The author's assertion, therefore, that it exists only fossilized, is inaccurate: at the same time, we may presume that in former ages of the world it was much more abundant, unless we suppose what is likewise not improbable, that the circumstance of its inhabiting great depths most frequently secludes it from observation.

3. The *Radiaria* are characterized by being naked, free, and mostly erratic; by having their bodies generally sub-orbicular, and reversed; by a radiating disposition in their external and internal parts; and by the want of a head, eyes, and articulate limbs. The mouth, which is either simple or multiplied, is placed underneath; the organ of digestion is most frequently compound; the respiration is performed by means of external pores, or tubes, which suck up the water; and the young proceed from groupes of internal gems, resembling ovaries. None of them are known to inhabit fresh water. The observations of M. Spix render it very probable that at least some of the species, belonging to the second order of this class, are furnished with a nervous system.

Order I. denominated *Softish*, includes all those which have a gelatinous body, and a soft and transparent skin; which are unprovided with a vent or with retractile tubes proceeding from apertures, but have hard parts at the mouth, and an internal cavity adapted to the reception of the organs. These gelatinous animals are extremely numerous and diversified; occurring in all the seas of the world, but especially in those of hot climates. Such as inhabit the more temperate regions make their appearance chiefly in the spring and summer. Owing to their great transparency, they are not readily perceived in the water; and so frail is their texture that, when thrown ashore, they speedily resolve into a watery fluid. During life, the bodies of most of them seem to be affected by stated and isochronous motions, which are probably connected with the exercise of the vital functions. Their organ of digestion, or of nutrition, appears to be very complicated; sometimes

sometimes exhibiting lateral ramifications and radiated processes; and sometimes a divided stomach, and many mouths. By means of aquiferous tracheæ, or canals, many of them are furnished with a supply of air, which they separate from the respired fluid; and which contributes to support them in the water, or to raise them to its surface. They almost all shine during the night, and especially at certain seasons, with a strong phosphorescent light, when the larger species have the semblance of torches illuminating the deep. Notwithstanding their transparency, many of them display a rich and lively variety of colouring, of which the intensity is momentarily increased or diminished.

M. DE LAMARCK divides the *Soft-bodied Radiaria* into the *Anomalous*, comprising *Stephanomia*, *Cestum*, *Callianira*, *Beroë*, *Noctiluca*, *Lucernaria*, *Physophora*, *Rhizophysa*, *Physalia*, *Verella*, and *Porpita*; and the *Medusarian*, including *Eudora*, *Phorcynia*, *Carybdæa*, *Aquorea*, *Callirhoe*, *Orythia*, *Dianæa*, *Ephyra*, *Obelia*, *Cassiopea*, *Aurelia*, *Cephea*, and *Cyanea*.

Stephanomia Amphytridis, which inhabits the Atlantic and Southern oceans, offers the appearance of a fine crystal azure-coloured garland, moving along the surface of the waves; raising its diaphanous leaflets in succession; stretching forth its beautiful rose-coloured tentacula to entangle its prey; and then darting, from beneath its leaflets, innumerable suckers, like elongated leeches, to draw it in. The *Cestum Veneris*, which has the appearance of a very broad and very extended ribband, inhabits the Mediterranean, but has not yet been found in its entire state. *Noctiluca miliaris*, a very diminutive but greatly multiplied species, is the principal cause of the luminous appearance of the sea during the night. It is particularly described by Dr. Suriray, in a memoir presented to the French Institute.

The *Medusarian* genera, specified above, are reduced from the more complex catalogue of *Péron* and *Le Sueur*; and some of them are only provisionally instituted, because this department of the subject will probably require to be remoulded.

Order II. of the present class, denominated *Echinodermata*, contains those species which are characterized by an opaque, coriaceous, or crustaceous skin; most frequently tuberculated, or even spiny; and generally pierced with openings, disposed in a series, and affording passages to so many retractile tubes, which aspire the water. Their mouth is simple, and almost always situated underneath, and its orifice is generally armed with hard parts. They are, moreover, furnished with

with vessels for the conveyance of peculiar fluids, and a simple or divided cavity in most instances appropriated to the body. They manifest neither the isochronous movements nor the phosphoric light of those of the first order. They have, with great propriety, been detached from the *Mollusca*, because their internal organization is less complex. They are all marine, gemmiparous, and possess the faculty of reproducing parts of their body which have been broken or separated. In some cases, the separated parts continue to live, and to send forth the portions that are wanting to form an entire individual: thus, the ray of a star-fish that has been detached, with a piece of the mouth adhering to it, retains its vitality, and forms in time a complete animal. M. DE L. divides them into three sections, which he designs *Stellerides*, *Echinides*, and *Fistulides*; the first composed of *Comatula*, *Euryale*, *Ophiura*, and *Asterias*; the second, of *Scutella*, *Clypeaster*, *Fibularia*, *Echinoneus*, *Galerites*, *Ananchytes*, *Spatangus*, *Cassidulus*, *Nucleolitus*, *Echinus*, and *Cidarites*; and the third, *Actinia*, *Holothuria*, *Fistularia*, *Priapulus*, and *Sipunculus*. — All the *Stellerides* were comprehended by Linné under the single genus *Asterias*, but they obviously required dismemberment. Although the rays of some species of *Euryalus* are only five at their origin, yet they bifurcate and ramify in such a multiplied and attenuated manner, that not fewer than 8000 branches have been reckoned to be connected with one individual.

The Linnéan *Echinus* is here spread over a considerable section, embracing eleven genera. *Actinia* has been removed both from the *Mollusca* and the *Polypi*, being considered as a *Fistularian* radiary. After having described some of the general properties of the species, the Chevalier thus proceeds:

‘ When we are within reach of *actiniæ*, they may be employed in some measure as a barometer; for, according as they are more or less expanded, or contracted, without any accidental cause, they presage weather more or less stormy, a sea more or less agitated, or else serene weather and a very calm sea. It has been observed that the indications furnished by the *actiniæ*, in this respect, were almost as certain as those of the barometer, and in many cases anticipated them.

‘ The *actiniæ*, like the *hydræ*, possess the faculty of detaching their base, of changing place, and of fixing themselves in another situation. They are multiplied by internal gems, which they discharge from the mouth, like so many living young. They are also sometimes reproduced by gems which pierce the mother’s body laterally, and, at other times, by natural lacerations of a portion of the ligaments of their base: lacerations which are effected by the contraction of these parts. *Dicquemare*, who discovered this

faculty in the *actinæ*, multiplied them at pleasure by cutting their base, or a portion of it, with an incision-knife. They have no noxious qualities; and some of the species are eaten in the Levant, in Italy, and even on the coasts of France which border on the Mediterranean. Their flesh, which is very delicate, has a flavour and odour analogous to those of the crustacea, and may furnish a resource to the inhabitants of the sea-coast in seasons of scarcity.'

Fistularia has been detached from *Holothuria*, owing to the particular form of the tentacula which surround the mouth. The adoption of the term *Priapulus*, and others of similar import, ought no longer to be tolerated in an age in which the fair sex are laudably disposed to the cultivation of various departments of natural science: yet, from *Linné* downwards, most of the expounders and nomenclators of the myriad productions that surround us are chargeable with the indelicacy to which we allude.

[*To be concluded in our next Appendix.*]

ART. VI. *De quelques Abus, &c.; i. e. On some Abuses introduced into the Religious System.* 8vo. pp. 98. Paris. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 3s. 6d.

CAN we make the age retrograde? Can we drive back the genius of philosophy and civilization, whose progress has been coincident with that of the human mind for the last three hundred years, into the confines of ignorance and barbarism? Can we again darken the light of reason with the thick shades of superstition? A considerable party in France, whose minds, if we may so express it, have been turned topsy-turvy by the unexpected restoration of the Bourbons, seem to have thought, or to be thinking, that these *back-slidings* are possible; and that, since that family has been replaced on the throne, every thing belonging to the old regime,—all the decayed lumber of superstition, of monks, nuns, and friars, of saints, and statues, and shrines, with all their mouldering reliques, and their accompanying miraculous powers,—may be again placed on their antient footing, and recover their former veneration. The good people, however, who indulge such foolish hopes, or make such ridiculous attempts, do not consider that the age in which these things were not only tolerated but adored has passed away; and that almost all objects have undergone a change, except their own bigoted minds and credulous opinions. *They* are where they were, but *the age* has made an indefinite advance, of which they have not the sense

sense to estimate the degree, nor the policy to conform to the conduct which it prescribes. They are still children: but they are too imbecile to discern that the children of their time have become men; and that those men have no longer the pre-disposing fitnesses for continuing the victims of credulity, and the slaves of a crafty superstition.

The author of the very rational performance before us mentions various instances in which the weak, fanatical, and intolerant *Ultras* have endeavoured to subvert institutions or to recast opinions which the Revolution has established. The revolutionary clergy, or those whom *Bonaparte* endowed with means for the useful discharge of their sacred functions, were not of a sufficiently fanaticized tone of thinking for *their* high-minded plan of again bringing the French under the domination of the hood or the cowl. These *Ultras*, accordingly, dispatched hordes of missionaries into the provinces; who endeavoured to restore the absurd rites of the Romish church in its worst days, but which could no longer be in unison with the general sentiments of a people, the whole cloud of whose antient prejudices had been swept away by the tempest of the Revolution.

These pious missionaries of the pious *Ultras* sometimes arrived in a body in a particular town, where they had it announced that they would preach for a certain number of times, as a company of players give out that they will perform for a certain number of nights; and these preachers, as the author tells us, p. 22., united with '*la puissance de la parole le prestige du spectacle*,' the power of the word with the fascination of show.

'If the processions of the missionaries were not every where equally successful, they at least produced every where the same effects. They excited fanaticism in a few, and displeasure in the many. They raised the feeling of pity in men of sense; and they called forth the taunts, the epigrams, and the songs of men of wit. They also gave occasion to many scandalous transactions, and to many vexatious results. There were women who no longer confided in the sanctity of their marriage, because it had received only the benediction of a constitutional priest; and there were others who refused to live with their husbands, because they were possessors of national property,' &c. &c.

Superstition has often enabled the artful to enrich themselves at the expence of the simple and the credulous; and, even in this enlightened age, these missionaries of the *Ultras* did not lose sight of their own interest in their zeal for the altar and the throne. They provided a number of sacred *lambes*, or *agnuses*, chaplets, rosaries, and other specimens of

popish mummery, on which the faithful were invited to lay out their money for the good of their souls : for, as the author tells us, '*sans argent, point de salut ;*' and, therefore, these merchants of religious wares, with which eternity was to be purchased, often kept their shops in the church-porch.

The revival of monastic institutions has been another favourite measure of the *Ultras* : though the destruction of those institutions, the principal tendency of which was to substitute vice and idleness for the active duties of life, was one of the greatest benefits which the Revolution had conferred on France.

' Whence is it,' says the author, ' that we hear so much talk of convents ; and that the journals are, every day, exhibiting to the view of astonished France the existence of some establishments of this kind, which seem to have been raised from their ashes as if by the wand of enchantment ? Religious communities are forming on all sides ; and even the Abbey of La Trappe is beginning to flourish again in the forests of Perche : its scattered solitaries are traversing the ocean in search of their ancient asylum ; and France is every day edified by the narrative of their austerities and mortifications.'

We agree with this writer that it is neither morally good nor politically wise to encourage that total abstraction from the social duties of life, and the affairs of the world, which monastic superstition recommends as the highest pitch of piety. The regrets of penitence are best testified in acts of an opposite nature to those of which the penitence was the result : restitution is the best recompense for injury ; *right*, for wrong ; *good*, for evil ; and the energies of virtue for the atrocities of vice. The sinner, who hides his head in the shades of La Trappe, may wear sackcloth on his loins, and pass the day in musing over his grave : but how much more salutary are those operations of a wounded conscience which are beneficial to society ?

The *Ultras*, who seem willing to combat as valiantly for antient prejudices as a knight-errant for his mistress, have made some efforts to revive the superstitious pilgrimages which were once in fashion to particular images, chapels, grottoes, and springs ; of which species of wonder-working instruments there was no deficiency in France before the Revolution : — but, as the author says, ' the æra of monasteries, pilgrimages, and miracles, has passed away ;' and the attempt to restore them to their former celebrity is only a vain struggle with the course of events and the operation of time.

At no period in the history of the world was it so necessary for governments to attend to the moral and intellectual phæ-

phænomena of the times as now. Man is no longer to be regarded as a mere lump of physical matter, which corporeal coercion alone is requisite to restrain; and governments must now, if they wish for security or permanence, pursue such a system of policy as will recommend itself to the reason of their subjects, and obtain that obedience which is not so much the homage of terror and constraint as of the mind and heart. Kings and princes have surely been taught the force of opinion: but what will be their destiny, if, forgetting this important truth, they wield the sceptre as if they were living at the commencement of the fifteenth instead of the nineteenth century?

ART. VII. *Revue de la Session, &c.; i. e. A Review of the Session of 1817, by Viscount DE ST. CHAMANS, Maître des Requêtes to the Council of State. 8vo. pp. 386. Paris. 1818.*

A FRENCHMAN, it has often been remarked, has no hesitation in taking a part in conversation on topics with which he is very slightly acquainted; and a similar animadversion may, without undue severity, be applied to the written composition of M. DE ST. CHAMANS: who, in spite of his mixed legal and political character of *Maître des Requêtes*, is certainly not competent to the vast variety of discussion which is undertaken in this volume. It is not, as the title seems to suggest, an abstract or digest of the debates in the French parliament, but a series of original views proceeding from the writer, and applied with equal confidence to topics the most unconnected:—to the Liberty of the Press,—the Recruiting of the Army,—the Regulations of the Gallican Church,—and the State of the Budget. These four subjects occupied the whole attention of the French legislature during a session of six months; for the members of that body are as yet unpractised in the dispatch of business, and accustomed to devote month after month to discussions which in this country would be carried through both Houses in the course of a week or ten days. Those of our readers who recollect the successive adjournments, on this side of the Channel, of the debate on the Duke of York's affairs in 1809, and of the Bullion-question in 1811, may form some faint idea of the prolonged harangues and reiterated postponements of every subject of general interest in the French parliament. To such an extent was this protraction carried on the question of the liberty of the press, that, when it had occupied several weeks, it was found necessary, from want of time, to postpone a

decision on the general subject for a year, and to confine the existing debate to the more urgent part of the question, which regarded news-papers. The same discussion, renewed in a late session, occupied the Chamber of Deputies nearly a couple of months, and necessitated the postponement of other highly interesting questions; such as the arrangement of a *Concordat* with the court of Rome, and an improvement of the very defective constitution of the Lycées and provincial universities.

It would answer no useful purpose to make a report of the opinions of a writer like M. St. C., on questions of such nicety and difficulty. The concluding part of his book is appropriated to the Budget, and on this we entered with less apprehension of his failings, chastened as the flights of imagination necessarily are on such a subject by the severe *épreuve* of arithmetical statements. He exhibits (p. 341.) a short abstract of the revenue and the expenditure of France; the result of which is, that each may be calculated for a series of years to come at thirty millions sterling, the *pros* and *cons* being apparently of a nature to balance each other. A large sum, above three millions sterling, on the side of expenditure, consists of life-annuities, which will of course experience an annual decrease: but against it is to be placed an unavoidable increase of charge in various departments, particularly in the army, the ordnance, and the navy; all of which have been brought by the disastrous close of the late war to a very low condition. This result of thirty millions on either side is confirmed (p. 345.) by the testimony of M. *de Villèle*, one of the most enlightened members of the French House of Commons. Loud complaints are made of the pressure of the *foncier*, or land-tax; and, if the price of corn does not experience a rise, it is evident that a tax which absorbs so much as 20 per cent. of the produce cannot be expected to be paid in full. On the other hand, an increase may be fairly anticipated under the head of customs; and some relief may be expected to the landholder from improvements in the mode of collecting the *foncier*, in consequence of the progress making in the new *Cadaastre*, or general survey of the territory of the kingdom. So far we have no fault to find with the observations of M. de St. C.: but he excites a very different impression as soon as he deviates from the beaten tract of tabular statement, and ventures to come forwards with original suggestions for financial improvement. The *foncier* or land-tax of France must, he says, be considerably reduced; and by what new taxes does he propose to make good the deficiency? — by duties on coarse linen, woollens, stockings, and other articles consumed by the lower orders.

orders. He refers to the fiscal system of England as a model, and what are the parts which he extracts for imitation? — the duties on paper, starch, candles, glass, and even leather! After this, it is needless to add more than the very few words that are requisite to give our readers some idea of the plan of the book; — as to subject, it is occupied with the four topics already mentioned, each of which has its appropriate chapter; and, as to language, the style, without being liable to animadversion on the score of exaggeration, must be characterized as woefully deficient in point of brevity and clearness.

ART. VIII. *Des Finances de la France, &c.*; i. e. On the Finances of France in 1817; on the Repartition of the Land-Tax (*Foncier*), and on the *Cadaastre*. 8vo. Paris.

M. POUSSIELGUE, though scarcely known on the northern-side of the British Channel, has belonged to the civil service of the French government for a number of years; having been employed in *Bonaparte's* expedition to Egypt, and having even been one of his *avant coureurs* intrusted with the delicate negociation which led to the surrender of Malta. Some of our readers, who may recollect the news-paper accounts of Nelson's victory at Aboukir, will succeed in calling to mind a long and emphatic letter, written by a French officer stationed on shore and at a considerable distance from the scene of conflict, but who was enabled, on that fatal night, to hear distinctly the roar of artillery, and the explosion which cast into the air the ill-fated vessel of Admiral *Brueys*. The writer of that letter was this M. POUSSIELGUE; who remained in Egypt a considerable time after the departure of *Bonaparte*, and unluckily marred his prospect of promotion by transmitting to France reports to the disadvantage of the fugitive commander; whom he, like *Kléber* and the other forsaken officers, was far from considering as destined to exaltation on his return. It is to the offence thus given that this author, and those who think favourably of his talents, are disposed to attribute his tardy rise in the public service.

Without asserting with the *Economistes* of the last age that agriculture is the only source of national wealth, it may be assumed as an historical fact that, with the exception of a few states strictly commercial, such as Venice, Genoa, Holland, and, in some degree, England and the United States of America, land has in all countries formed the principal source of public revenue. This is particularly the case in

France; a country of which the length of coast is small when compared to her superficial extent; and of which the foreign commerce, particularly since the loss of St. Domingo, bears a very slender proportion to its agricultural returns. It was accordingly to a *foncier*, or land-tax, that the members of the National Assembly cast their eyes in the early part of the Revolution, for the resources which should enable them to give popularity to the new system by abrogating the obnoxious duties on salt, wine, groceries, and other articles of daily consumption. The origin of the *foncier* in 1790, the rude manner of its collection during several years, the improvements that took place in 1798, and still more under *Bonaparte*, have all been noticed in our report of the valuable work of the Duke of Gaëta (M. Gaudin) in our last Appendix. To that minister, France is indebted for the plan of the minute and accurate survey now carrying on under the name of *Cadaastre parcellaire*; a name adopted to distinguish it from the continuous survey of extensive tracts (*masses de culture*) which, it was once vainly hoped, might supersede the very laborious details of the present operation. It is in a circumstantial recapitulation of these details that the chief interest of M. POUSSIELGUE's tract consists; and as, amid all our varieties of taxation, we can boast of nothing similar to this important fiscal and politico-economical measure, we embrace an opportunity of laying a summary view of the whole before our readers.

The process followed in the *Cadaastre* consists of three parts; measuring the land, classing or assigning it to one or another of the five classes prescribed by the official instructions, and, lastly, computing the value of its annual produce. In the first two, no objections are made by the proprietors to the returns of the surveyors: in the last, their estimate is frequently questioned: but, after long attention to cadastral operations, M. POUSSIELGUE pronounces that the only material fault lies in too low valuations. The surveyors have no interest in a high rating: they are inhabitants not of Paris, but of the department in which they act: they are almost always farmers of good character, who are naturally desirous to avoid offence to their brethren; and, though appointed by the *prefet*, they are explicitly instructed to refrain from over-valuing.

The expression *Cadaastre parcellaire* is derived from *parcelle*, a word used to denote a lot of land; which, whether occupied by one or more tenants, is of equal or nearly equal quality throughout. Such lots are, in general, small; each parish being divided into a number of sections, and each

section

section containing, on an average, between 5 and 600 *parcelles*. — On completing the first step in the process, the measurement, a copy of the return is sent to each landholder; and his corrections, when fair, receive immediate attention. Next comes the valuation, for which various documents are required; viz. the leases of the district, the acts of sale for a number of years back, and the registers of the weekly markets, called *Mercuriales*, from the market being frequently held on Mercredi (Wednesday). The acts of sale, as well as the leases, are lodged with the notaries of the place and with the officers of the stamp-duties (*préposés de l'enregistrement*). The *Mercuriales* are consulted so far back as 1783, extracts being made for the eight years from 1783 to 1790 inclusive, and for the seven from 1797 to 1803. The seven intermediate years are left out, because the use of paper-money and its fluctuating value baffled all record. Of the fifteen years that thus constitute the list, the rule is to omit four, — the two of the highest and the two of the lowest prices; after which, one-eleventh of the remainder is taken as a fair average. The chief agent in this estimate is the inspector of taxes for the district, it being under his direction that the market-registers are examined, the leases and acts of sale collected, and the result of the calculation submitted to the local magistrates or principal land-holders and farmers. The person next called in is the surveyor, who receives a copy of the labours of his predecessor, with a topographical sketch of the *commune*, and a list of the *parcelles* or petty lots. He then repairs to the spot, and, aided by the mayor, (for country-districts in France have their mayors,) the comptroller of taxes, and such of the neighbours as chuse to attend, examines the different lots, and decides to which of the five classes each should be assigned. Instead of perplexing the unlettered minds of the peasantry with definitions and calculations, he has recourse at once to the evidence of comparison, and fixes on particular *parcelles* or lots as a type or standard. The rest are to be comprized under some one of these, and to be valued as they approach to them in quality. The *parcelles* thus selected are particularly pointed out in the *procès verbal*, and the whole survey is public and open to correction. — The valuator next computes the gross produce, makes the requisite deduction for the expence of cultivation, and is thus enabled, by an appeal to calculation as well as ocular inspection, to class each different lot under its proper standard or type. This part of the survey is called the *classemens*; and, when a lot varies in quality so as not to be referable *in toto* to one of the five classes, half of it may be assigned to one
and

and half to another, or a third to one, a quarter to another, &c.

Having finished the different parishes of a canton, the director of taxes brings together the inspector, the comptroller, and the surveyor; each of whom takes a part in the remaining examination. The next step is to communicate the whole to the landholders, by transmitting to each a copy of the papers relative to the measurement, the gross produce, and the deductions for expence of cultivating. A duplicate of these papers is transmitted to the mayor of the *commune*, who keeps them bound up in a volume open to public inspection. By these various communications, the landholders are enabled to ascertain several material points: 1st, Whether the return be correct as to measurement: 2dly, Whether each lot has been fairly classed under the one that is taken as a model: 3dly, Whether the valued income is in conformity to the rent actually paid; and, 4thly, The collection of registers in the mayor's possession shews every individual whether his neighbours have been assessed with impartiality.

About two months after the delivery of these documents, one of the comptrollers of taxes repairs to the *commune*, or parish, with the surveyor, to hear the objections of the landholders, and to examine them on the spot by a reference to the *parcelles* or standard-lots. Such objections as are evidently reasonable are allowed at once; while others of a doubtful character are submitted, with the remarks of the government-officers, to the *prefet* of the department. When the details of each *commune* are adjusted, the next point is to ascertain whether the valuation throughout the whole of these petty districts has proceeded on similar grounds. The *prefet* now calls a cantonal meeting, composed of a delegate from each *commune*; lays before them all the documents relative to the survey; and invites them to compare each class in one *commune* with the same class in others. The assembly examines whether a due proportion has been observed with regard to the different kinds of land, whether vineyard, meadow, or arable; and it is authorized to correct by taking from the one and adding to the other: but it can make no alteration as to the general result; — it cannot reduce the aggregate, however it may modify the distribution.

Such is the routine in the French *Cadaastre*; — a routine involving an annual expence of from 100 to 200,000*l*. To an English reader, the whole will appear circuitous, and unnecessarily incumbered with appeals both to individuals and public meetings: but this is a very common case in France, where the number of government *employés* and local councils greatly

greatly exceeds our corresponding establishments in England. The French have little idea of referring a complicated task to a single individual: the aid of collective meetings must be called in; and the members of them attach a wonderful importance to the occupancy of a public charge, however unproductive of salary.

The *Cadaastre* is now proceeding with considerable regularity; and, when its advance has enabled us to form a correct estimate of the produce of the territory of France, we shall embrace an opportunity of adverting to the inequality of the early assessments (in 1790 and 1791): — a topic frequently brought forwards by M. POUSSIELGUE, but on which our *data* do not as yet empower us to enter with confidence. Meantime, it is highly satisfactory to find that the advantages arising from the *Cadaastre* are not confined to fiscal objects: a measurement made with skill, and a valuation marked by strict impartiality, are as useful to the proprietor as to the treasury; and, though the surveyors are indulgent, a rise of rent has in many cases followed their report.

Leases. — In the first attempts at a survey, and afterward in 1798, leases were adopted as the chief standard of reference: but they are much less fitted to that purpose than leases in England, and an adherence to them was a fundamental cause of the great inequality in the original valuation. Much discrepancy was found to arise from local usages, such as the payment of a fine for a reduced rent, and, in other cases, the commutation of money for labour: besides, the lease represents the rent exclusive of the farmer's profit; and this was by no means the object of the legislature. "The taxable income," says the law, "is that which remains after having deducted from the gross produce the cost of culture, seed, harvesting, housing, and carrying to market:" but it makes no mention of a deduction of farmer's profit. In our own country, the income of farmers was subjected to the property-tax; and in France it is almost impracticable to compute the amount of such income with any satisfactory degree of precision, the tenure of land being very different in different provinces.

The total expence of culture is currently reckoned at half of the gross produce, at least in the southern part of the kingdom; where, from the poverty of the farmers, the proprietor must supply implements and stock, and a great portion of land is let *à moitié fruit*. This is quite a different calculation from that which takes place for a lease; as a proprietor may receive 50 per cent. of the produce for his advance and personal superintendence, without profiting more than he who
grants

grants a lease for a rent of only 33 per cent.; leaving the difference to the tenant, in consideration of his capital and of his capacity for the management of the farm.

M. POUSSIELGUE concludes by recommending a *Conservator of the Cadastre* in each canton; — ‘an officer who should register the various changes arising from sale, inheritance, or otherwise.’ This suggestion seems very proper: but we must add that, were we to form an idea of the professional abilities of the author from the composition of his book, we should be inclined to infer that his country had suffered little from his suspended promotion: since nothing can be more contrary to our notions of official method than this essay from the pen of a professional *administrateur*. — The more general part of the work, we mean that which treats of the revenue and expenditure of France, has at this time little claim on our attention; being superseded by the informations already given in our Appendix to vol. lxxxii., and being inferior, both in recency and comprehensiveness, to other statements on French finance which we propose ere long to lay before our readers. At present, we conclude with exhibiting the various calculations that have been made on that great statistical inquiry which forms the object of the *Cadastre*; we mean the annual produce of the property in France in lands and houses, deducting every attendant charge except farmer’s profit.

Computed by a committee of the National Assembly in 1790 at	-	-	<i>Sterling.</i> £50,000,000
The <i>Cadastre parcellaire</i> has already extended over a third of each department of the kingdom: if the remaining two-thirds are of a correspondent return, the result will be			63,000,000
A calculation made from the average produce per acre in each department gives a result of nearly	-	-	70,000,000
Finally, a computation in 1815, by surveyors employed by government to make a summary return, produced an amount (perhaps over-rated) of	-	-	75,000,000

ART. IX. *Nouveaux Principes d'Economie Politique, &c.; i. e. New Principles of Political Economy: or Wealth considered with reference to Population.* By J. C. L. SIMONDE DE SISMONDI. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1819. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 1l.

M. DE SISMONDI’S history of the Italian Republics during the Middle Ages, fraught with learning, embellished with eloquence, and enriched with an inquisi- it of
real

moral and legislative philosophy, raised him at once to the highest eminence as an historian: while his later work on the Literature of the South of Europe, — Italy, Spain, Portugal, and the Provençal, — displays a comprehensive research, a discriminating judgment, and a cultivated taste, which intitle him to the character of an enlightened critic. It is with pleasure, therefore, that our attention is called to another production of this author; from which he derives new claims to applause, in yet another branch of literature. The subject, however, though it may at first sight appear foreign to those which have engaged his pen, cannot be deemed altogether unconnected with the natural and necessary course of his pursuits. No man, with that ardent spirit of inquiry which distinguishes M. DE SISMONDI, can employ himself in recording the oscillation of the human intellect in different ages and countries, — and in tracing the progression, the retrogression, and, if we may be allowed the term, the solstice of national wealth and prosperity, which has occasionally presented itself to his observation, — without being attracted to the study of that science on which so much of national wealth and prosperity depends, viz. Political Economy.

In our report of an Essay on the Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce of France by M. Costaz, who is one of the secretaries of the Society for the Encouragement of National Industry at Paris *, we availed ourselves of the opportunity to congratulate the French on their emancipation from many of those absurd and galling restraints on internal as well as external commerce which had, for ages before the Revolution, impeded the natural celerity and steadiness of its march. We obtained also from that essay some interesting information as to the actual state of the science of political economy in France; and we felt an honest pride in seeing the merits of our countryman, Adam Smith, not only acknowledged and highly appreciated, but his work becoming, as it were, the text-book for practical commentators in that enlightened country. An equal homage to his merit is paid by the present author; who remarks that his immortal book is almost as valuable for the light which it throws on the human race, and for the analysis of economical revolutions of past times, as for the general laws which are there for the first time promulgated, and which promote the increase of national wealth. — ‘ It is the object of my work to develop the principles of Adam Smith, and to extend their application. His doctrine is mine; and the torch which his genius bore

* See M. R., Appendix to vol. lxxxvi., p. 469.

into this field of science has shewn to his followers the right path which they ought to pursue. Whatever progress we have made since his time, to him must we ascribe it; and it would be a very puerile vanity that employed itself in exhibiting all the points on which, perhaps, his mind had not been correctly informed, since it is to him that we are indebted for the discovery even of those truths which were unknown to himself.' After this avowal of profound admiration for Dr. Smith's creative genius, and lively gratitude for the light which he has shed on us, it will doubtless excite surprise, that the practical inferences to be drawn from the doctrine which he has taught us are sometimes diametrically opposite from those which M. SIMONDE has himself deduced. (See vol. i. pp. 49. 52.)

We think that M. DE S. has not been judicious in the choice of his title, *Nouveaux Principes*, &c. He may have extended the application of Adam Smith's doctrine and corrected certain of his errors, and he may have evolved new inferences from the principles of political economy, but the principles themselves are not new; they are inherent in the science, and existed long before Adam Smith, Sir James Stewart, *Quesnay*, *Colbert*, or *Turgot*, applied themselves to the discovery and elucidation of them. Adam Smith, taking his station mid-way between the commercial system of *Colbert* and the agricultural system of *Quesnay*, (who, like *Sully*, considered pasturage and tillage as the two breasts of a state,) promulgated a third theory, making labour the source of national wealth.

M. DE S. thus explains the nature of his own work, and the modifications of Dr. Smith's theory which he suggests:

' We agree with Adam Smith that labour is the only source of wealth, and economy the only means of accumulation: *but we add* that enjoyment is the only object of this accumulation, and that no increase of national wealth takes place if no corresponding increase of national enjoyments accompanies it. Adam Smith, *considering wealth alone*, and seeing that all those who possess it feel an interest in augmenting it, has concluded that this augmentation can never be more effectually encouraged than by leaving to society the free exercise of individual interests. He says to Government: The riches of individuals form in their aggregate the riches of the nation; and every rich man endeavours to become still wealthier. Let him do so; he will enrich the nation by enriching himself. We have considered wealth with reference to the population which it ought to support and to render happy: we do not regard a nation as increasing in opulence by the mere augmentation of its capitals, but only when those capitals diffuse, as they increase, a greater portion of enjoyment over the population which they maintain. Doubtless, twenty millions of men are poorer with

with a revenue of six hundred millions than ten millions of men with a revenue of four hundred millions. We see that rich individuals may augment their riches either by some new production, or by reserving to themselves a larger part of that which was before appropriated to the poor; and we are perpetually invoking that intervention of Government to watch the progress of wealth which is deprecated by Adam Smith. Government ought to be the protector of the weak against the strong, the defender of him who is unable to defend himself, and the representative of the permanent but quiet interest of the whole, against the temporary but greedy interests of individuals. Experience seems to justify us in considering an old system in this new point of view; and, although the authority of Adam Smith has by no means been received in every part of economic legislation, the fundamental doctrine of a free and unlimited competition has made very great progress in all civilized societies. Hence has resulted a prodigious development of the powers of industry, but often likewise a frightful degree of suffering on the part of numerous classes of the people. Experience has made us feel the necessity of that protecting authority which we seek: it is necessary in order that men may not be sacrificed to the accumulation of a wealth from which they derive no sort of advantage; and it should always interpose to compare, and strike the balance, between the calculations of personal aggrandisement and the only national calculation, the augmentation of the conveniences and enjoyments of the whole people.' (Vol. i. pp. 53. 55.)

M. DE SISMONDI divides his subject into six books. The first treats of the Formation and Progress of Wealth: 2. Territorial Wealth: 3. Commercial Wealth: 4. Money: 5. Taxation: 6. Population. It is too much for M. DE S. to assert a distinction between himself and Adam Smith in their views of the objects of national wealth. We agree, says he, that labour is the only source of wealth, &c., 'but I add that enjoyment is the only object of this accumulation.' — 'Adam Smith considers wealth alone, but I consider a nation as not increasing in opulence by the mere augmentation of its capital, unless there is a correspondent diffusion of enjoyment over the mass of the people.' Now this really implies that the British philosopher, confining himself to the *subject* of national wealth, had forgotten the *object* of it; or that he was indifferent to that moral and physical well-being of mankind to which his work has essentially contributed. Had Adam Smith been thus negligent, he would have ill-merited the eulogies of the present writer: but, *not* having been thus negligent, these eulogies, like the verdant myrtle wreath entwined round the ensanguined sword, almost seem intended to conceal the weapon which inflicts the wound. We certainly do not, however, suspect M. DE S. of any such insidious view, though we cannot

cannot account for the misconception which gave rise to such a remark. Smith considers the wealth of a nation to consist in its labour, but he considers it with reference to its enjoyments also. The wages of labour are proportioned to its demand, the liberal reward of it is the *effect* of increasing wealth, and the *cause* of increasing population. Let M. DE SISMONDI read again the chapter which treats on the Wages of Labour (B. I. ch. viii.); let him read again those admirable articles in the fifth book of the "Wealth of Nations" which treat of the expence of justice, of institutions for the education of youth, and for the instruction of people of all ages; and he will not then think that our philosopher has overlooked the application of his principles. Alluding to the complaint which was prevalent *in his time*, that luxury had extended itself to the lowest ranks of the people, who were no longer content with the same food, lodging, and clothing which had satisfied them in former times, he exclaims: "Is this improvement in the circumstances of the lower ranks of the people to be regarded as an advantage or as an inconvenience to the society? The answer seems, at first sight, abundantly plain. Servants, labourers, and workmen of different kinds make up the far greater part of every great political society. But what improves the circumstances of the greater part can never be regarded as an inconveniency to the whole. No society can be flourishing and happy, of which the far greater part of the members are poor and miserable. It is but equity, besides, that they who feed, clothe, and lodge the whole people, should have such a share of the produce of their own labour as to be tolerably well fed, clothed, and lodged." — "The condition of the labouring poor is hard in the stationary and miserable in the declining state: the progressive state is, in reality, the cheerful and the hearty state to all the different orders of the society. The stationary is dull; the declining melancholy." We could quote a hundred additional passages to shew that Adam Smith, so far from being indifferent to the application of his principles, had the intellectual, moral, and physical enjoyments of the great mass of society always in view; and, in short, that he identified them just as much as M. DE SISMONDI does with the real wealth of a nation.

It is the business of the political economist to lay down general principles, and content himself with a general application of them. He may well leave the modifications, which special cases require, to be adapted and applied to those cases as they arise, without involving himself in the prolixity of endless detail. Adam Smith expatiates on the advantages of
machinery:

machinery : but he does not tell us that the application of some new and enormous force, like that of the steam-engine, and the rapid developement of the mechanical powers which modern ingenuity has elicited, might not by possibility produce a temporary distress in creating an article much faster than the demand for it. Yet it is the *rapid* developement of these latent powers, rather than the general application of them, which may, though for a short time only, have an unfavourable effect. Thus, again, with respect to the general freedom of trade; — that fundamental dogma of Adam Smith, as M. DE SISMONDI calls it, which he thinks has made such progress in all civilized societies, and which he acknowledges to have called into action the most wondrous powers of industry, but from which he considers that such frightful suffering has resulted to numerous classes of society. M. DE S. does not seem to reflect that the strength as well as the beauty of this fabric is destroyed by the removal of a single stone. If the government of a country presses heavily on any one branch of industry, for the purposes of revenue, or gives encouragement to any other, the whole system is destroyed; and Adam Smith does not say that, under such circumstances, it may not be wise and necessary to adjust the balance which government itself had been the first to disturb. This is true as well with respect to foreign as to domestic trade. If agriculture is oppressed with certain burdens peculiar to itself, *it may be expedient*, though we are far from asserting that *it is*, on the part of government, to protect it by corn-laws. If the British government imposes a new duty of sixpence per pound on the importation of Spanish wool, Adam Smith, perhaps, would not censure the Spanish government for endeavouring to neutralize its effect by remitting an old export duty of four-pence per pound on its own subjects. Such modifications as these, arising out of new circumstances, confirm the truth of his theory rather than impeach it. If we violate his principles in one point, we shall find it necessary to violate them in some other, in order to repair the mischief. — M. DE S. is deeply impressed with the commercial and manufacturing distress which of late years has afflicted Europe: which *he has witnessed* in Italy, Switzerland, and France; and which has visited with at least equal severity England, Germany, and Belgium. Well may he exclaim that governments are taking a wrong course, and aggravating the distress which they would gladly alleviate. ‘On all sides I behold,’ says he, ‘men of wealth doing mischief, patriots ruining their country, and philanthropists multiplying paupers.’ We cannot see, however, that any part of this evil originates in the freedom of trade: on the contrary, we should attribute

much of it (for many causes must co-operate in producing such an effect) to the violation of that freedom. With respect to England, for example, the corn-laws, without affording any thing like an adequate protection to the agricultural interests, are materially injuring those of every other class of society. Can any measure be more impolitic than the restraint which denies to our artizans the power of purchasing their food in the cheapest market? Our capital, or, more strictly speaking, our revenue, is insufficient to supply the means of employing our population: but this inadequacy, as Mr. Ricardo has well observed, is the natural result of circumstances: for, when the profits on capital are lower here than in other countries, capital will naturally go out of this country into them. The corn-laws have a tendency to enhance the necessaries of life: this must raise the price of labour, either in the shape of wages or disguised under the shape of poor-rates: consequently, the profits of capital are reduced, and that capital flows out of the country; and our workmen increase in number, while our funds for the employment of them diminish in amount. *

Every

* Let it not be imagined that we are insensible to the vast importance of the landed interest of the country:—its *relative* importance may be judged by the following comparison. From statements printed by order of the House of Commons, dated March 6. and 7. 1816, it appeared that the number of occupiers of land was *more than double* the number of persons engaged in trade and professions; and it appeared likewise that land paid *more than two-thirds of the whole property-tax of the kingdom*. In the year 1814–15, the respective assessments for the property-tax were as follow:

Schedule A (land- lords) paid -	£4,297,247	Schedule D, (trade, paid -	£2,000,000
Schedule B (occu- piers) paid -	2,167,228		
Total paid by land	£6,464,475	Total	£2,000,000

Foreign corn may be *warehoused* duty-free at all times, and entered for home-consumption likewise without duty, when the average price of wheat is 80 shillings per quarter: but not when the average price is lower. This is the chief protection, though wholly inefficient, for agriculture. Commerce, however, is protected by import-duties on a great variety of manufactured articles, amounting from 35 to 90 per cent. Any article made of leather, for instance, is subject to a duty of 90 per cent. Bottles
and

Every thing to which man affixes a value is created by his industry ; and every thing so created is to be consumed for the satisfaction of his necessities and desires : but, between the moment of its creation by his labour and that of its consumption by his enjoyment, it may have a longer or shorter existence. It is that thing, the fruit of labour, accumulated and not yet consumed, which is called wealth. M. de S. illustrates the nature of wealth, first, in an isolated individual, for the sake of simplification, and afterward extends the application to societies. He supposes a man to be thrown on an uninhabited island ; the sole and undisputed property of which does not render him rich, however fertile the soil, however abundant the game which roam in its forests, or the fish that swim in its rivers, or the ore which is concealed in its bowels. On the contrary, in the midst of all this profusion, he may be reduced to the lowest stage of misery, and even perish with famine. This islander, however, domesticates the animals, and reserves them for future use : he acquires a property in them, and they constitute a portion of his wealth. He tills the soil, sows his crop, and defends it from the incursions of wild beasts. Thus has his labour acquired for him new wealth, and the amount of this wealth is to be measured by the length of time during which it enables him to suspend his labours, without experiencing a renewal of his wants. Whatever is the beneficence of Nature, she gives nothing to man gratuitously ; and the history of all wealth is comprehended within these limits, namely, the labour that creates, the economy that accumulates, and the consumption that destroys. That which receives no additional value from labour, remote or immediate, is not wealth, however useful or even necessary it may be. On the other hand, that which does not satisfy his desires, and cannot be applied immediately or remotely to the use of man, is not to be denominated wealth, whatever

and glass, 72 per cent. ; china-ware, 50 ; and all sorts of woollen-cloths are subject to a duty of a guinea and sixpence per yard. Certainly, commercial wealth ought never to be considered as second in importance to territorial wealth ; for the one which furnishes subsistence to put the other in motion must in political economy rank first. Those who live by commerce cannot partake of the fruits of the earth till those fruits are raised ; and they cannot long continue to be raised without a remuneration for the labour and capital which they require. Cheap bread for the labouring classes is *not an object of the first importance* ; if we find them with permanent productive employment, they will procure bread, at whatever price the expence of production may require.

labour it may have cost in the production. Lastly, that which cannot be accumulated, and which cannot be reserved for future consumption, is not to be denominated wealth, although it may be produced by labour and consumed in enjoyment. Nothing, then, which unites two of the three enumerated requisites, can be called wealth if the third constituent is wanted. Air, water, fire, are not only useful in themselves, but positively necessary to existence, and they may be reserved for future use: but, *in general* requiring no labour in their production, they do not constitute wealth. Those labours which fail of their object do not constitute wealth, since no enjoyment is derived from them, although the work done remains. Exercise, music, dancing, &c. combine labour and enjoyment, but they do not constitute wealth, because they have no permanent existence; they cannot be accumulated and reserved for future use: the value cannot be realized of that work which perishes at the very instant of its production. The islander, deceived by analogy, might expect to multiply his olive-trees by sowing olives; ignorant that their kernels do not reproduce, like those of most other fruits: he might bestow a great deal of labour in trenching his ground, but it would be thrown away, for he would not see a single olive-tree spring up. He might protect his dwelling against bears and wolves, — a very useful labour, no doubt, but unproductive; for it would not make his fruits increase. Lastly, if he saved his flute from the wreck which threw him on the island, he might pass his time very agreeably in playing on it, but alike unproductively; and for the same reason. He would soon discover that those labours which yield no enjoyment are useless; that those, the fruits of which cannot be laid up for future consumption, are unproductive; and that those only which leave behind them a pledge and representative, at least equivalent to the labour bestowed on them, can be called productive, and contribute to his wealth.

In the case of an isolated individual, there can be no commerce, no exchange, and no money, which is the medium of exchange. Otherwise, the history of this individual with respect to the creation of wealth is the history of the human race. In communities, wealth also originates in labour, is preserved by frugality, and employed to procure those enjoyments in which it is consumed. Exchange alters neither the nature of labour nor the nature of wealth. The master who gives wages for work has altered his own relative station, but the result is the same: if his workman has sown olives, the labour is unproductive to his master, although advantageous to himself, because he gets wages for his trouble.

It is precisely the same with music, dancing, &c. He who procures those indulgences performs a labour that is lucrative to himself because he receives wages for it, and it is agreeable to his employer, but it is unproductive. The same operations, then, take place, and with the same object, by man in a state of solitude and in a state of society; with this only difference, that in the first case he has to take care merely of himself, and in the creation of his own wealth never loses sight of its object, namely, his own enjoyment and his own repose: — while in the second, living in the midst of a multitude of associates with whom he is making a continual interchange of services, he works that others may enjoy and repose themselves, reckoning on the labour of others again for his own enjoyment and his own repose. In a state of solitude, it would be absurd for a man to accumulate superfluous wealth, because he could not consume it; he knows the extent of his wants, and proportions his labour to it. In society, however, the demands for labour are indefinite, because the modes of consumption and enjoyment are infinitely varied; and here M. DE SISMONDI considers that modern economists have fallen into a very grievous practical error, in supposing the demands for labour to be infinite because they may be indefinite; — in representing consumption as an unlimited power always ready to devour an unlimited production. They are continually encouraging nations to produce, to invent new machinery, to finish their works so that the quantity executed in each year may exceed that of the preceding: they are grieved at seeing the number of unproductive labourers increase; stamp the idle with public indignation; and, in a country where the powers of workmen are become centupled, would make every man a workman, and every man work for his living. As, however, repose is the end and recompence of labour, men would renounce the refinements of arts and manufactures if it were necessary that every one should purchase them by a constant labour, like that of the daily workman. The necessities of the labouring man are very limited. With the prodigious multiplication of the productive powers of industry, we might soon provide, with the united force of society, for all its food, clothing, and lodging. If the whole nation employed itself as workmen alone now do; if, in consequence, it produced ten times more food, clothing, and lodging, than each individual could consume; do you think, says M. DE SISMONDI, that each man's lot would be better? no such thing. Every workman would have to sell as *ten*, and buy as *one*; he would sell so much the worse, and have less ability to buy. Thus the

transformation of a nation into a great manufactory, with productive workmen constantly employed, instead of creating wealth, would create universal misery.— This reasoning, however, it is plain, excludes the operation of foreign commerce. Superfluous labour must be employed on luxuries; for, even in a more favourable organization of society than that which exists at present, and if the labouring classes obtained a much larger share of the wealth which they create, still they would very soon be supplied with every comfort which is compatible with their daily occupation. You certainly would never be able, he adds, to send them to their workshops in their own carriages, or persuade them to work in suits of velvet and brocades of gold. If such must be the result of that zeal for production which all writers inflame, and governments encourage, workmen would very soon renounce the luxury which they must purchase at such a painful expence of labour.

It appears from the tone of these observations that M. DE S. attributes much of the distress which pervades Europe to excessive production, the markets every where being overstocked. We cannot help one another, then, and the distress must continue till consumption has created a fresh demand: but the supply is still going on: we must either have recourse to emigration, therefore, or abandon machinery. A fearful alternative! Machinery has no where been brought to such perfection as in this country; and if, by the rapid evolution of its powers, consumption can no longer keep pace with production, self-interest will dictate to those who employ it the necessity of a partial and temporary limitation of its use. With respect to emigration, some writer has observed that, of all commodities, man is the most difficult to be removed: for so numerous, and so strong, although so fine as sometimes to be invisible, are the threads which bind a man to his native soil, that emigration is never effected without a great and painful effort. The laws of necessity, however, are irresistible; and, in the present situation of this country, when pauperism is consuming almost half the rental of the kingdom, and daily opening wider its insatiable jaws to devour the remainder, we cannot but feel that every encouragement should be given to those whose miseries at home have already prepared them to exercise their industry in the United States, Canada, South America, New Holland, Africa, or Hindostan. At the same time, it cannot be denied that, in thus expatriating individuals, — and it is a startling fact that in the course of the last year twenty-seven thousand British and Irish arrived at New York, twelve thousand at Quebec,

and

and four thousand have sailed for the Cape of Good Hope, — we transport from our country a large portion of her industry, talent, and capital; we extinguish those thousand endearments, and we forcibly rupture those nameless, invisible, but powerful attachments, which give her sons a pride in her prosperity, and a sympathy in all her misfortunes; and we alienate them from the interest of an unnatural parent, who has rejected them from her bosom, disinherited them from the common rights of children, and sent them pennyless wanderers through the world. Emigration, then, ought only to be considered as a measure of the last necessity, and not to be adopted on the score of either policy or good feeling, till our seas are covered with fishermen, till the bogs of Ireland are drained, and till the wastes and forests of England are inclosed and cultivated. We see with pleasure, therefore, while we are writing this article, that the Chancellor of the Exchequer has intimated the intention of ministers to propose the suspension of certain provisions of the poor-laws, with a view to facilitate the occasional removal of paupers from London and its environs to Dartmoor forest, or other places where employment can be allotted for them; and we trust that a similar provision will be extended to paupers all over the kingdom, and not be limited to those of the metropolis and its vicinity.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. X. *Dictionnaire Raisonné, &c.*; i.e. A Dictionary explanatory of the Difficulties, Grammatical and Literary, of the French Language. By J. CH. LAVBAUX. 8vo. pp. 810. Paris. 1818.

THE author of this dictionary, with more reserve than continental literati usually manifest, has declined to add in the title-page any of his honorary designations: but he is, we understand, a man of letters of some eminence in the philological branch at Paris, and fills the situation of sworn translator or interpreter at the departmental Prefecture in that capital. He begins by remarking the extraordinary number and magnitude of the works which have treated of the grammatical part of the French language: but, however easy it may be to acquire French to the extent of speaking it in conversation, and writing it in a familiar epistolary style, the case is very different when a work is to be prepared for the press; a number of unanticipated niceties and difficulties then presenting themselves, and the labours of the academical philologists not always furnishing a satisfactory solution. ‘The Academy;’

says M. LAVEAUX, 'composed a dictionary without making a grammar, and laid down consequences without recognizing general principles.' The task of compiling that dictionary was also left, in a great measure, to men of mediocrity, the writers of high reputation considering the labour as too mechanical. Still, the work was useful at a time when the number of persons who studied the French language was very limited, and the definitions gave the reader a sufficiently correct idea of the meaning of ordinary words: but they were defective in pointing out the shades of signification arising from the various ways in which these words may be employed. This remark will be best understood by an example taken from M. LAVEAUX's work.

'*Forcer* is followed sometimes by *à*, at other times by *de*; *forcer quelqu'un à manger*; *forcer quelqu'un de consentir*. The Academy, in this as in other cases, merely note the variation, without attempting to explain it by a general rule: but the discrimination, in my opinion, is that *à* points to an object distinct from the subject in question, and that *de* does not. Thus *Voltaire* says, "*on l'a forcé à rendre cette lettre*:" but, in speaking of the suspension of the course of a stream, his words are,

"*Et força le Jourdain de rebrousser son cours.*"'

The first edition of the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie* was published in the 17th century; and, in the long interval that has since passed, it has undergone three successive revisals and re-impressions. The extent of these alterations, however, has not been considerable, having consisted chiefly in the suppression of obsolete phrases or the insertion of newly adopted words. It has often been a matter of question among French scholars, whether the publication of a dictionary by authority was not a misfortune to the literary world, by discouraging the introduction of new and emphatic expressions: but the most distinguished members of the Academy ventured frequently to make use of words in a sense different from the dictionary; and that authority was followed only by inferior writers, who were afraid to hazard a phrase that was not placed officially on record. Another question that was for some time doubtful in France was, whether the last edition of the dictionary published in 1798, after the suppression of the Academy, should be regarded as proceeding *bonâ fide* from that body: the question, however, was decided in the affirmative. Our readers are probably aware that the name of Academy was never applied to the great literary body of France during the revolutionary period: but, since the return of the Bourbons, a compromise has taken place in this as in other things, the

collective

collective body still bearing the name of Institute, but the four classes being called Academies. *

M. LAVEAUX admits that useful treatises on every part of French grammar have been already published: but he observes that they are far from uniform or even similar in their plan; some of them are accompanied by metaphysical discussions, beyond the capacity of the majority of readers; and, moreover, the dictionaries published by individuals are almost always deficient in rules, and frequently in vocables. In the hope, he says, of remedying these inconveniences,

‘ I undertook the work now offered to the public; reducing into one single system all that I deemed useful in recent grammars; avoiding long arguments; condensing diffuse explanations; and new-modelling a number of things which have not hitherto been brought in connection with any general system. The order of the book is alphabetical, but a connection between one article and another is kept up by means of references: so that the reader is at liberty either to confine himself to the particular word about which he is in doubt, or to go from that to others in which he will find discussions of the principles of grammar; thus *désirer* is sometimes followed by a verb without the preposition *de*, as *désirer faire quelque chose*; and at other times with the *de*, as *je désire de réussir*. What rule can be laid down as a guide in either case? If the verb that follows *désirer* signifies a plain and decided action, without any accompanying idea of doubt or uncertainty, such as *je désire voir cet homme*, or *je désire prendre du chocolat*, I am of opinion that *de* should be omitted:—but, if the verb that follows should imply the existence of contingency or doubt, the *de* is to be introduced; *il désire de gagner son procès*; *il désire d’obtenir cette grace*.

‘ *Qui* is a relative to things as well as persons, when it is the subject of an incidental proposition; that is, when it points to a noun as the *subject* of such a proposition; thus we say, *la maison qui m’appartient*, as we say, *l’homme qui veut vivre en paix*: but, when *qui* points to an antecedent which is the *complement* of a proposition, it is applied to persons only; thus, *l’homme à qui j’ai parlé*, but *la chose à la quelle vous devez faire attention*.—*Dont* is preferable to *de qui*, whether we speak of persons or things; *l’homme dont vous parlez*; *la réputation dont vous jouissez*.’

M. LAVEAUX’s principal authorities are *Voltaire*, *Marmontel*, the *Chevalier de Jaucourt*, *La Harpe*, and above all *Condillac*. His work is a dictionary not of the French language at large, but of its difficulties; that is, of the words about which certain doubts and differences of opinion exist, and the use of which requires an investigation of grammar rules. It does not profess to enumerate the various significations of a word,

* See Art. IV. in this Appendix.

but gives them only as far as they are necessary to point out the mistakes of preceding writers, or to illustrate some general rule. It is compiled on a very useful plan; uniting by its alphabetical arrangement the means of easy consultation with the advantage of sequence in the reasoning by references from one article to another: his quotations also are good; and, if his statements in the shape of general reasons appear occasionally fanciful or refined, it is at least a satisfaction to arrive at something like a comprehensive view of the cause of discrepancies, of which most dictionaries merely notice the existence. We need scarcely add that the work is not adapted for perusal, but for occasional inspection; and that it is required less by those who merely read French, than by those who aim at speaking it, and, above all, at writing it, with accuracy and elegance.

ART. XI. *L'Europe après le Congrès d'Aix la Chapelle, &c.; i. e. Europe after the Congress of Aix la Chapelle; being a Sequel to the Congress of Vienna.* By M. DE PRADT, formerly Archbishop of Mechlin. 8vo. pp. 378. Paris. 1819.

THIS indefatigable writer allows no epoch of consequence in the diplomatic history of Europe to pass without an address to the public, in which he discusses the present and the eventual operation of the changes that are introduced. The scope of the work before us is very extensive, comprizing not only France, Great Britain, and Russia, but every independent state in Europe; each of which is brought forwards in a separate section, and rendered successively the object of the author's remarks. He analyzes again the proceedings of the Congress of Vienna, considers their effects on the political relation of the different powers, and examines how far these are modified or altered by subsequent arrangements, particularly by the Congress of Aix la Chapelle. France was the power most immediately affected by the last meeting of the allied sovereigns, and to her accordingly is devoted the first chapter in the volume before us: but, her situation being already familiar to our readers, we prefer to exhibit an example of this author's reasoning from the passages relative to other states; premising that his style is so diffuse and unconnected, that the following paragraphs have been unavoidably condensed, and are to be considered much rather as a specimen of his matter than of his composition.

Prussia.—‘ Since the territorial arrangements of the Congress of Vienna, Prussia has one of her arms on the Moselle, and the other on the Niemen; where is the body which connects these

two members? There are, we may say, three Prussias; the first in Poland, the second in Germany, and the third between the Maese and the Rhine. The first is flanked in all directions by Russia, the third lies within reach of France, and the only compact portion is the one in Germany. An attack from Russia would separate the eastern division from the body of the kingdom; an attack from France would over-run the grand duchy of the Rhine; and, in the event of a war with Austria, Prussian Silesia would have to support the whole pressure of the invading force. This want of concentration, this long and defenceless frontier, obliges Prussia to support a very large army, and to incur great expence in establishing those points of support which are denied to her by her position. How much remains to be done to give her any thing like a solid protection against such neighbours as Russia and France?—Her finances are destined to be long embarrassed: she will not be capable of carrying on war by her own means; and subsidies will be more necessary to her than ever, since she will not for ages possess an accumulated treasure like that of the Great Frederick.’—

Netherlands.—‘The political system of the age called for a support to Germany on the side of France, the petty principalities hitherto existing in this part of Europe being evidently unfit for that purpose; and hence the necessity of forming a combined state,—the kingdom of the Netherlands. It would have been better to have given to this kingdom all the German territory on the left bank of the Rhine, and to have indemnified Prussia with Saxony: the Rhine, forming a barrier to the Netherlands, would then have left that kingdom the care of no other frontier than the one against France. Still the formation of this new kingdom is a great political benefit; it is situated between France, Prussia, and England; it can be formidable to none of them, and has no interest but to maintain peace with them all; and its stability will be found greater than it may at present appear, when we consider that it is the interest not only of Prussia and England to defend it against France, but of France to defend it against Prussia. Though of itself unable to resist the arms of France, it has not perhaps much to dread when we reflect that the latter power, in attacking it, must triumph over the armies of Europe; first of Prussia and next of England, which is ready to come forwards with her own troops and with a host of subsidized auxiliaries. The enmity alleged to exist between the Dutch and the Belgians is much over-rated; such feelings are of importance only when they affect the basis of an union: but here each part of the machine of government obeys the same impulse; and the head of the state has no disposition to resist the improvements demanded by any particular province; all have in view an increase of prosperity from the future emancipation of America, and the expected extension of commerce.’

The observations of M. DE PRADT on the policy of England are not extended to a great length, but sufficiently indicate

dicating the disposition of the writer, and the general character of a book which in many places is fanciful and erroneous, but in others marked by sound and liberal views. He falls into the common error of over-rating the extent of wealth accruing to us from our colonies, and of considering such expensive appendages as Gibraltar, Malta, and Corfu in the light of highly valuable acquisitions: but, on coming to topics with which he is more familiar, and on analyzing our motives for political interference with the continent of Europe, his opinions are intitled to much more attention. He gives us the comfortable assurance that we need not feel disquieted at any continental changes, or be alarmed at any hostile movements except such as threaten one object,—the independence of the Low Countries. His remarks on the northern states seem also intitled to a favourable notice.

‘ Sweden may look forwards with confidence to days of tranquillity and happiness. Relieved from those quarrels with the neighbouring states which followed the possession of Livonia, Pomerania, and Finland, she has now no object but that of consolidating her union with Norway, and of avoiding war with Russia, unless in concurrence with a great coalition. The new dynasty must, for its own safety, act a vigilant part, and seek its stability in the increased welfare of the nation. Those wars which, under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII., led the Swedish armies to fight and perish in foreign lands, would now be without necessity or object. Even Prussia is no longer interested in opposing Sweden, since the latter has relinquished Pomerania. The acquisition of Norway gives her an extended sea-coast and harbours where she most wanted them; augmenting her interest in increased commerce, and preparing for her a larger share of that commercial wealth which must follow a prolonged peace. How much is it to be regretted that the discovery and conquest of Spanish America were not achieved by the nations of the north of Europe! what a contrast would have been afforded between their enterprising and laborious habits and the indolence of the natives of the south of the Pyrenees; who could neither turn that country to account when it was tranquil, nor recover it now that it is awakened by the spirit of independence! Norway is barren, and less productive to Sweden than Finland: but the change has removed the dangerous contact of Denmark, and in some measure lessened the terrors of the vicinity of Russia; while the general security of the Baltic is improved by the union of Sweden and Norway, one concentrated state being stronger than two which have no bond of union.’—

Denmark.— ‘ Recent events have rendered this kingdom the victim of many evils of which it was innocent: the separation of Norway was a bitter sacrifice to the inhabitants of both countries: but still the state of Denmark is not without consolatory considerations. Sweden has nothing more to demand at her hands; and any farther

farther claim would be opposed by Russia, by England, in short by the majority of the powers of Europe. Denmark may therefore rest assured of the peaceable possession of her territory, and may with confidence direct her industry to that maritime commerce which will prove the true source of her wealth and augmented population. Situated at the entrance of the Baltic, she must necessarily share largely in the eventual benefits of trade with America, and Copenhagen will be the great *entrepot* of this commerce. The colonies of Denmark are not large; and their future separation from the mother-country, a separation to be anticipated by every state in Europe, may therefore take place without any great shock either to the fortune of individuals or the power of government. Perhaps it would have been better in the arrangements at Vienna to have allotted to Denmark not a part, but the whole, of the duchy of Lauenburg on the right of the Elbe, together with Lubeck and Hamburgh: these cities might have rested secure under this pacific government; and the consolidation of petty states would evidently have given strength to the barrier of Germany on the north.'

These remarks on particular countries are followed by observations of a more comprehensive nature; such as on the political spirit of the day, the maintenance of standing armies, and the rapid growth of a national debt throughout the different states of Europe. On these topics, our limits do not permit us to enlarge; nor is it necessary, after the exposition lately given by us (M. R. for October, 1817,) of the views and composition of the Abbé DE PRADT. To that article, and to our preceding notices, we refer such of our readers as may be desirous of a more intimate acquaintance with writings which have obtained great currency on the Continent; a circulation which may be attributed, however, less to the opinions of the author, than to his occasional disclosure of the official secrets of Bonaparte.

ART. XII. *Histoire de la République de Venise, &c.; i. e. A History of the Republic of Venice.* By P. DARU, of the French Academy. 8vo. 7 Vols. Paris. 1819. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 5l.

GRATTAROL's Historical and Political Memoirs of the Republic of Venice, which were noticed in our nineteenth volume, N. S. page 572., throw more light on the constitution than on the history of the state: while the volumes before us, on the contrary, give the history of Venice with orderly and sufficient detail, but inquire less into the administration and government. M. Grattarol had the present, and Count DARU takes

takes the past for his scope: but both deserve a place in the library of a critical historian.

This work is divided into forty books, of which the first contains a geographical description of the Venetian territory. The alluvial soil of the Po is said to add yearly a breadth of two hundred feet of land to the Italian continent near its mouth. A people called Venetians, supposed to be of Vandal descent, inhabited at the earliest period on record the coasts at the northern extremity of the Adriatic, but the islands on which Venice now stands were merely a haunt of fishermen. The invasion of Italy by Alaric occasioned general insecurity on the Continent, and it was at this period that certain fugitive merchants, or owners of boats, from Padua, came and built dwellings on the Venetian isles. In 421, a fire destroyed twenty-four houses on the Rialto, which occasioned a vow to build a church to Saint James; and the consequent edifice forms the earliest monument of the republic of which we can trace the station. Theodoric, King of the Goths, invaded Lombardy in 493; at which period, Cassiodorus addressed a letter to the inhabitants of the Lagoons, ordering them to bring by sea from Istria to Ravenna certain provisions of which the senatorial armies were in want; and this letter implies some municipal government at Venice, as well as an habitual allegiance to the authority which Cassiodorus represented. A maritime war with some Slavonian pirates was the first enterprize of the nascent republic. A patriarch expelled from Aquileia came to settle at Grado in 605, and contributed to the foundation of a cathedral. In the year 697 the elective magistracy, hitherto called tribunes of the people, placed at their head a duke, or doge, whose office was to continue for life. Of the first fifty doges, five abdicated the sovereignty, nine were banished or deposed, five had their eyes put out, and five were assassinated. To make the dukedom hereditary in the family was the usurpation most frequently attempted by the doges.—The arrival of the body of Saint Mark from Alexandria in 827 was the epocha of a festival which attests commercial prosperity, and an ambitiously magnificent superstition.

The second and third books carry on the history of the doges to the year 1191. The acquisition of Dalmatia, the first crusade, the capture of Tyre, then of Corfu, the expedition against Sicily, and other co-operations with the crusaders, are detailed: they severally contributed to enrich the merchants, and to prepare the empire of the country. Book iv. includes some controversies with the Holy See, during which the republic was laid under an interdict. The taking

of Constantinople in 1203, by the Venetians and French, and the consequent partition of the Greek empire, gave great importance to the insular dominion of the Venetians, who added Candia to the possessions which they had already acquired in the Archipelago. — The fifth and sixth books relate a war with the Genoese, and various revolutions of the constitution of Venice. An ingenious map is inserted, which renders intelligible the singular plan of election. — The seventh book narrates those quarrels with Ferrara which drew on the Venetians the displeasure of the Pope, and a consequent excommunication. All the sovereigns of Europe concurred to execute the papal bull.

‘ In England,’ says the author, ‘ they confiscated the property of the excommunicated Venetian merchants, robbed their counting-houses, and plundered their travellers. In France, those Venetians who had brought merchandise to the public fairs beheld it seized and dispersed by order of the government, and their vessels were confiscated in the harbours. It was still worse on the coasts of Italy, in Calabria, in Tuscany, and especially at Genoa; for not only all the Venetians there were ruined, but many were massacred. A great number found themselves reduced to slavery, and were sold by Christians to barbarians and Mohammedans under the authority of the Pope’s bull. Happy for us, adds the historian *Carlo Antonio Maria*, that the Saracens were not baptized, and that our ships and crews in their ports were respected in the usual manner.’

Book viii. relates the withdrawment of the interdict, the vindictive expedition against the Genoese, the revolt of Candia, the crusade of Smyrna, the rebellion of Zara, and the devastations suffered by pestilence in 1343. The conspiracy of *Marino Falieri* closes the book.

From the tenth to the fifteenth books, the author is employed in narrating those successive wars, managed by hired *condottieri* against the petty potentates of Lombardy, which gradually extended the continental sway of Venice westward to Brescia and Bergamo, and began to alarm the Dukes of Milan for their own independence. This alarm, however, produced an efficacious resistance, conducted by *Francesco Sforza*, and seconded by the French court; and it progressively brought on the pernicious league of Cambray, which imposed limits to the territorial aggrandizement of a republic so favourable to the dignity and independence of Italy.

In the sixteenth book is related the taking of Constantinople by the Turks. Hitherto, the Venetians had principally preserved such intercourse as subsisted between that city and the rest of Europe; and they had been the chief importers of the

little

little Greek literature and traditional science which continued to decorate the metropolis of the eastern empire: but, now, Greek fugitive priests and philosophers were destined to emigrate into Italy, and, by teaching their language and introducing their treasury of manuscripts, were to domesticate in Europe those studies which led to the revival of learning, of art, of taste, and of philosophy.

The seventeenth and eighteenth books are chiefly occupied with petty acquisitions and cessions of isles in the Archipelago, which were necessitated by the varying events of wars against the Mohammedans.

Volume III. opens with a picture of the trade, manufactures, and commerce of the Venetians at their highest pitch of opulence and prosperity. The expedition of the French king, Charles VIII., to Naples, is related with inappropriate detail, and occupies the whole twentieth book.

Books xxi. to xxv. are employed about various petty enterprises, and narrate also the operations occasioned by the league of Cambray concluded in 1509, which may be considered as the grand cause of the declension of Venetian power. Had the republic connected with its metropolis the principal cities under its dominion, by allowing them to delegate tribunes of the people, and thus to take a part in preparing the decisions of the senate, it is likely that Venice might have consolidated under its sway most of the free cities of Italy, and have become in a commercial age what Rome had been in a military period, the practical soul of the body of the Italian people.

Volume IV. traces the gradual declension of the republic, partly resulting from the new course which oriental commerce adopted, round the Cape of Good Hope; and partly from the intolerant and illiberal character which the alarms of odious governors impressed on internal institutions. The hereditary aristocracy of Venice was unfortunately never intent on incorporating the excluded classes, as fast as they acquired the instruction and the opulence which rendered them worthy of citizenship, but pertinaciously maintained its own exclusive privileges and monopoly of power by the suppression of public liberty, and the consequent extinction of public spirit.

In the twenty-eighth book, Count DARU intimates that the story of Don Sebastian's appearance at Venice has never been satisfactorily elucidated. We confess our opinion that this fourth Sebastian (there had been already three pretenders) was but another impostor patronized by the republic. The evidence for the death of the King of Portugal in battle during his African crusade is not liable to any rational suspicion: it is naturally probable, it is circumstantial, and it was not dis-

puted

puted during the reign of the rightful heir, his uncle Henry the cardinal. After the Spanish usurpation began, a doubt which had the obvious purpose of unsettling the allegiance of the Portuguese was first propagated. The story of Sebastian's preservation originated at Tercera, one of the Azores; and twenty whole years elapsed before the return of this pretended Sebastian. According to his own story, he was still in Egypt at the time of his uncle's death, and consequently within reach of European intelligence. This, then, was the proper period for his return; and why should he go and bury himself in a Georgian convent so long in vain? His apparition at Venice, a state hostile to the Spaniards, rather than at Rome, which was the natural asylum of refugee catholic princes, is ill explained by the robbery which is said to have befallen the King and his attendants in Sicily, and which ought rather to have prevented than to have occasioned his reaching the extremity of the Adriatic. Rome inclined to the Spanish interest, and Venice was the retreat of the refugees from Portugal. — On the supposition of imposture, the place of appearance is natural. The Venetian senate, being well disposed to the revolutionary Portuguese, did exactly that which was likely to give importance to this pretender, and to prevent detection: they transferred him notoriously to a state-prison: they suffered the Spanish ambassador and the King of France to interfere about his commitment: but they never allowed a particle of evidence to transpire, and they carefully intercepted investigation, even from less partial quarters. If we suppose this Sebastian to be the true king, his long detention becomes inexplicable. That the Venetians took an interest in his safety is clear from their anger with the Duke of Tuscany on account of his seizure. Finally, the Neapolitan examinations so admittedly terminated in the detection of imposture, and in the proof of his being a Calabrian, that the self-created king was paraded on an ass through the streets of Naples, as if to court various confrontation, in a place full of Spaniards who had visited Portugal. The real king would have been removed speedily by an ostentatious execution: an impostor only could be safely sentenced to the galleys, preserved alive for inspection, and transferred to San Lucar, in the very neighbourhood of Portugal.

The thirty-first book is allotted to the examination of that conspiracy, which supplied our dramatist Otway with the fable of his *Venice Preserved*; and much novelty of view, as well as sagacity of critical animadversion, is displayed in this analysis. Count DARU is of opinion that the whole story was a false alarm, ingeniously directed against the Spanish ambassador,

but unprovoked by any conduct on his part. The Duke of Ossuna, Spanish viceroy at Naples, was, according to the present author, the employer of Pierre, of Jaffier, of Renault, and of all the pretended conspirators; and he retained them for the purpose of engaging Dutch and Venetian troops and adventurers to assist him in assuming the independent royalty of Naples. With this scheme, the Venetian republic was made acquainted, and was disposed to concur; and therefore these agents were suffered to enroll desperate persons for an unknown enterprize, which they themselves mistook for an intended attempt on Venice. The Duke of Ossuna, however, having been disappointed of the expected connivance of France and Savoy, timidly gave up his Neapolitan plan of usurpation: on which the rulers of Venice, desirous of obliterating the traces of his treason, or fearing to commit themselves with Spain, or anxious to be prepared with better grounds of war than their own countenance of rebellion in the Spanish viceroy, seized the agents of Ossuna as incendiaries employed by Spain. This is superfine policy, but much in the spirit of the practical Machiavelism of Italian diplomacy.

In books xxxii. to xxxiv. the author relates the war of Lombardy, the war of Candia, and the acquisition and loss of the Morea. It was unquestionably in the power of Venice to have awakened the Greeks from their long slumber: but a rapacious and venal nobility, exclusively bent on the advancement of their private and personal fortunes, was not an instrument fitted to excite that popular ardour and patriotic enthusiasm, that remembrance of antient heroism, that spirit of liberty and magnanimity, that classical love of the fair and good, which are destined, we hope, at some period to re-animate Greece.

Volume V. does not observe the same proportionate length of narrative which had hitherto been adopted, but a single chapter, the thirty-fifth book, hurries the history from 1719 to 1789; from the war about the succession of Parma and Tuscany to the French Revolution. The series of Doges is barely named, and the republic makes no more sensation than the Sleeping Beauty. Books xxxvi—xl. narrate, in great detail, so much of the Italian campaign of *Bonaparte* as influenced the fortunes of the Venetian provinces, extinguished their independence in 1798, and finally transferred to the house of Austria the dominions of the entire republic and the metropolis itself. At the conclusion of the history, the author thus sums up his sentiments of the Venetians:

‘ After having considered the Venetians in their political organization, their military achievements, their industry, and their
opu-

opulence, it seems proper to estimate those services for which European society is indebted to them. It remains to be examined what progress they impressed on human knowledge; since, after fourteen hundred centuries of existence, some discoveries in science and some monuments of art are all that is left of this celebrated people.

† We must acknowledge that the mercantile spirit, so generally diffused among this people, and the dumb obedience required by a wise but suspicious government, were not favourable to the development of thought. Yet still the opulence bestowed by commerce, the versatile residence and travelled habits of the citizens, and the enduring peace of their interior, counterbalanced to a certain point those depressing causes.

‡ Whatever judgment we may form of the government of Venice, we must own that, among all the societies of modern Europe, it was the first which acquired a stable organization. The practice of navigation necessitates various studies, or at least observations, which are the sources of knowledge; and the habit of frequenting distant nations enlarges ideas, destroys prejudices, and imposes comparisons of which the consequences may be salutary. The Venetians were early in relation with the only polished nations of the middle age, the Greeks and the Arabians; and it is probable that they owed to this observation of foreign manners the advantage of escaping from that restless ignorance, which is always blindly attempting some useless change. They gave themselves laws, imperfect no doubt, but few in number; they kept them for six hundred years; and their history is not stained by any civil war.

§ Witnesses of the fury with which the Greeks had addicted themselves to controversial theology, they could discover that vain subtleties only increase the darkness to which the human mind is condemned, whenever it attempts to overstep the limits of the present and visible state of being. The dissolution of the Greek empire, owing principally to these disputes, convinced Venice of their danger; and it had the good sense to abstain from them. The republic never deviated from the faith, nor into controversy: always submissive, as a Christian state, to the head of the church, it was the first to detect and define the limits of ecclesiastical power over the administration of countries; and it taught the trembling and the refractory sovereigns of Europe, that the usurpations of Rome may be resisted without separating from the Holy See.

¶ No time was lost at Venice in disputes about government, or about doctrine: but the people supported its administration when unable to amend it, and preserved the religion which was handed down by their ancestors. The necessity of providing for the wants of life gave to their minds another direction; and the lot which placed the Venetians on a barren sand, where neither vegetation nor fresh water could be procured, compelled them to go beyond sea for every thing. They bought, they sold, and they imitated, the productions of other men and other countries; and this traffic be-

came to them a source of opulence and an instrument of luxury. In early times, the Venetians, more than any other people, contributed to the progress of manufacturing industry, and this pursuit soon calls in science to its aid.' (Vol. v. p. 583.)

A catalogue of the names which have most illustrated the republic concludes the survey. To the doge and historian *Andreas Dandolo*, high praise is assigned for his munificent contributions and judicious exertions to promote the revival of literature. Whatever manuscripts Petrarch desired him to import, his clerks, and supercargoes, and commercial travellers, were commanded to seek at Alexandria, at Salonica, at Constantinople, or at Ephesus. He enriched the library of Saint Mark; and Petrarch bequeathed to it his own collection, so much of which this doge had previously placed at his command. The first Venetian versifier was *Bartolomeo Giorgi*, but he composed in Provençal: the first Italian translation of the Bible was made by the Venetian *Malerbi*; and the first printed Hebrew Bible was edited by *Bomberg* at Venice. *Aleandro*, a Greek professor at Paris, and the author of an early lexicon and grammar for that language, was also a native of the Venetian states. Still the nation became more remarkable for its printers than for its authors, and seemed to value literature only as an object of commercial speculation. In geographical science, in map-making, and in the description and discovery of strange coasts, the Venetians acquired a degree of merit which subsequent exertions have superseded. The earliest mention of the compass is by *Marino Sanuto* of Venice, who flourished in the thirteenth century. The words, as quoted by *Formaleone* in his *Saggio sulla Nautica antica dei Veneziani*, are these: "*Quum potius magnes attrahit ferrum, quia nobiliori modo in magnete virtus sui principii poli arctici reperitur.*" Galileo was appointed professor at Padua by the senate of Venice, and the offer of a tripled salary was made to detain him from retiring to his own country. The first lock, or sluice, applied to any European canal, was constructed at the expence and on the *terra firma* of the republic. Mathematicians and mechanics abound. When *Ariosto*, at the close of his poem, describes his vessel as reaching the port, he names among those who approach to welcome him five Venetians; a proof that it was for the public of this metropolis especially that he wrote. *Ludovici*, the materialist, author of the triumph of *Charlemagne*, was allowed to dedicate his poem to the doge *Andrea Gritti*. The father of *Tasso* was born in the Venetian territory; and so were *Trissino*, *Oliviero*, and *Fratta*, the author of the *Maltheide*. The Venetians were the revivers of the
drama,

drama, and preceded the Florentines in the adoption of classical subjects:—the Hecuba of *Dolce*, translated into English, is probably the play to which we find an allusion in Shakspeare's Hamlet. *Maffei* and *Zeno* have prolonged to our own times the reputation of the Venetian dramatists. — The architects of Venice, who were numerous, invented close chimneys at the beginning of the fourteenth century; before which a huge and roofless tower in the kitchen had been the solitary fire-place in their apartments:—*camino* is a word belonging to the Venetian dialect. *Buono* is the earliest, and *Palladio* and *Scamozzi* are the most celebrated, of the Venetian architects. — Their school of painting acquired yet higher distinction. *Titian*, *Giorgione*, *Bassano*, *Tintoretto*, and *Paul Veronese*, are among the more distinguished artists in this line; and *Andrea Montegna*, by the invention of engraving on copper, has rendered to every school of art an imperishable service. If among her early sculptors Venice can name with pride only *Briseo* and *Aspetti*, she has conferred on our own times the pre-eminent *Canova*.

Volumes VI. and VII. of this work consist wholly of an appendix of documents; such as extracts from original authorities, public papers, and other justificatory pieces: to which an extensive index is added. The entire performance bears resemblance, and owes advantages in many particulars, to *Labaume's* Abridged History of Venice, on which we commented with no cursory attention in our sixty-seventh volume, p. 523.; and to that article we refer the reader for an analysis of those causes (see especially p. 529.) which impressed on the Venetian *nobile* his peculiar character. Count DARU writes at greater length, and in the earlier part of his work with a more comprehensive survey of authorities: but in the latter part of it his industry somewhat relaxes, and his narrative incurs a shrinking meagerness. In this respect he is essentially different from his predecessor and rival, that, in relating the campaigns of *Bonaparte*, he observes the tone of a royalist, whereas M. *Labaume* on every occasion parades a republican slang; and this precaution will secure to Count DARU a preference of attention from his countrymen. Since the restoration of royalty, it has become the fashion in France to push out of circulation the democratic authors, and to consider those writers only as French classics who have resumed the worship of the *grand monarque*, and can bend a knee at the foot of the altar.

French readers have always received with marked complacency a history of the decline and fall of commercial nations. Like *Marius* amid the ruins of Carthage they delight to brood

brood over fallen warehouses and deserted quays, and to watch the owl to her nest in the lightless pharos: A secret hope rests in their minds that the wealth founded on foreign traffic is of a less permanent nature than that which results from domestic industry; and they trust that they shall find superior longevity attached to inferior national prosperity: If, however, it be true, as we think this history shews, that Venice fell only in consequence of having neglected to extend the basis of her freedom, those nations, who are imitating the pursuits of that state, have in their own hands a remedy against analogous dissolution.

ART. XIII. *Voyage dans le Levant, &c.; i. e. Travels in the Levant*, in 1817 and 1818, by Count DE FORBIN. 8vo. pp. 460. Paris. 1819. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 12s. sewed.

WE are told, at the beginning of this narrative, that M. DE FORBIN'S journey was undertaken in a great degree at his own expence, and that his desire of visiting the Levant induced him to sell a patrimonial estate on the banks of the Durance, in order to obtain the requisite supply of ready money. Some facilities for the enterprize, however, were granted by government; and a gratuitous passage was awarded to him and his companions on board the frigate *Cleopatra*, with introductory letters to the French consuls, and to the Turkish authorities. The embarkation took place at *Marseilles*, and the first landing at *Milo*, the antient *Melos*, an island of the Archipelago, nearly contiguous to *Argentiera*. The theatre of *Milo* had been discovered by *Baron Haller* of *Munich*, who lately fell a victim to his zeal for the examination of classical antiquities. The next landing took place in the port of *Athens*; which the author visited in company with the intelligent French consul, *M. Fauvel*, out of whose collection he acquired for the Museum of *Paris* several sculptured remains. *Constantinople* is the ensuing place of stay; and then *Smyrna*. We copy, as less familiar, the description of the supposed ruins of *Ephesus*:

‘ A rocky mountain of toilsome ascent conducts by winding ways to the plain of *Ephesus*, which extends with gradual inclination from a mosque, formerly the church of *Saint John*, to the sea-shore. The principal ruins are half way down the hill, and stretch along the declivities which border the flat land: the latter being covered with bushes, furrowed by torrents, and intersected by the winding *Cayster*, a little river which runs into the sea by the ruins of an antient quay which seem to designate the port. For a space of nearly three leagues, we meet with numberless shafts of columns,

columns, ruins of villas, of which the apartments can yet be traced, remains of long aqueducts, and hewn blocks of granite, marble, and porphyry. An amphitheatre, visibly defined in its whole extent, and several triumphal arches, announce the grandeur, elegance, and magnificence of Ephesus.

* The hills, which surround this plain, are almost entirely hollowed by sepulchres or quarries; and epitaphs of the humble dead contrast with the proud inscriptions of trophied arches. On the right, a Pharos points on high, as if navigation still approached this deserted shore; on the left, fennel-bushes, nopals, and wild fig-trees, conceal with their vegetation the crumbling monuments.

* From the port to the city, an antient road may be traced, consisting of a pavement formed of large blocks of *palombina*, a sort of grey marble from the neighbouring mountain. It commences at the corner of the quay, extends before the ruins of warehouses, of the stadium, and of the theatre, and proceeds between two mountains, in the valley of which were the principal edifices of the city. The arena of the stadium is on a level with the road; and the steps, cut out of the rock, ascend the whole height of the hill. A remaining portico appears to indicate the station of the forum. The stadium would, I think, have contained three times as many spectators as the Coliseum at Rome: in general, the theatres of that metropolis sufficed for its numerous population: but those of Ephesus had occasionally to include all Greece.

* Two great gates decorated the entrance of the stadium. One is almost overthrown; the other is of marble, and has been repaired with some fragments from a different edifice. Greek inscriptions may be traced, some withered basso-relievos, and the Latin words *ACCENSO RENSI ET ASIAE*.

* Following the road down hill, I came to another theatre. Two inscriptions were placed on one arcade: but I could not copy them, because they had been filled with plaster by some Englishmen, friends of science, and ever mindful of the gratification of others.* This theatre, cut into the rock, is of surprizing magnitude: wherever the spectator sat, he would have before him a view of the sea, of the circus, the naumachia, the mountains of the gulf, the harbour, and the temple of Diana.

* Farther on is a temple, of which the columns and entablature in great part remain: it was of the richest architecture, of the Corinthian order. One of the angles of the pediment appeared to me singularly to resemble, in material, dimension, and sculpture, the fragments preserved in the Colonna garden at Rome.

* Behind these great ruins, appears a smaller theatre than the one already described, which was perhaps the Odeum: it is circular; and its steps, cut into the mountain, seem to have been cased with marble. Immense therms stand leaning against the remains of an aqueduct, which unites two mountains covered with various remnants of edifices. This investigation brought me to

* The import of this sentence is rather ambiguous. Is it intended for a sneer by the noble Count? — Rev.

the walls of the city, which satisfactorily define its enormous circuit.

‘ I arrived with some fatigue and difficulty, and under a burning sun, at the vast precincts of the temple of Diana. The whole appeared to me in extent equal to the Louvre and the Tuileries. The foundation, which supported the principal building, still subsists: but all the columns have been taken away, and have chiefly been conveyed to Constantinople. Strong walls of brick and stone announce a reconstruction of the back part of the temple on the side of the opisthodom, clearly posterior to the original work; and subterraneous apartments, formed of huge blocks of white stone, display an infinitude of corridors, which may indicate the exact dimensions of the building, the colonnade, &c.

‘ On beholding these gigantic constructions, it is easy to conceive how much they must have cost the people of Greece and Asia. Behind the temple of Diana, stands a circular monument adorned with columns; and another, of a square form, which has been paved with marble. A third building, over the vaults, is entirely in ruins. These three remains compose a sort of mound, palpably impressed with the exquisite taste of the Greeks in the brilliant period of their prosperity.

‘ What a subject for profound emotions is the spectacle of this spreading desolation! What a terrible and singular lesson to walk for leagues among ruins, and to behold materials of admirable beauty, chiselled by the hand of genius, become a lair for the wolf and a den for the wild boar!

‘ The Gate of the Persecution is a marble edifice, constructed with the fragments of older buildings, and reminded me of Roman monuments. Two basso relievos were irregularly inserted above the door-way: the English have lately taken away that which represented the death of Hector: but the operation was performed so badly, that the car of Achilles and the body of Hector are yet left. I endeavoured to remove the other bas-relief, but could not succeed for want of ropes and tools. A recent earthquake has overthrown this gate, since I sat down to draw it; and the ground is covered with a frightful chaos of stone and marble friezes, pediments, architraves, metopes, and statues: all that charmed of yore, by the regularity and perfection of its forms, now appals by the confusion of its wreck. I followed the course of the aqueduct into the mountains, where it still collects the waters of various abundant sources: but no one comes to taste them. Some Turkish baths, themselves forsaken, stand near; and the water gushes in a cascade on the dome of these ruins, and buries itself among festoons of wild vines. Distant ages of civilization, and modern barbarism, have alike chronicled their annals on this seat of regret; where only the wanderer heaves a lofty reflection, and then bows to the conviction of the perishable nature of all things.

‘ The citadel, placed on Mount Pion, commanded a part of the town which still exists, and where the great mosque stands. It is of Moorish architecture, and superior to the Alhambra both for
plan

plan and execution. The entire building consists of marble of the most dazzling whiteness ; and the gate, of which the ornaments are exquisitely finished, leads into a court planted with fine trees, in the midst of which a basin receives a copious fall of clear and fresh water. The lightness of the arcades, supported by columns forty-five feet high, the elegant sculpture of the vaulted cieling, and the exquisite finish of every part, are alike marvellous and delightful.

‘ We dined near three or four thatched cottages which harbour the population of the modern Ephesus : the inhabitants are pale and sickly ; and the Aga, as miserable as the people whom he rules, was dying of a fever. To dwell in a deserted town is every where dangerous : I have observed the fact in Italy, in the Morea, and in Syria : death seems ambitious to reign alone over the regions which he has conquered.’

Our readers will observe the positive and confident tone of the whole of this passage, on a subject of so much doubt and controversy as the remains and even the situation of the antient Ephesus, which was the sport of so many vicissitudes.

At Smyrna, the author again embarks for Acca, and lands in Palestine. He beholds Mount Carmel from the sea, visits Joppa, and proceeds to Jerusalem. Here he follows, and not with equal steps, *M. Chateaubriand*, (see our lxviith volume, p. 496.) whose manner of writing is rather imitated than rivalled, and whose objects of attention are approached afresh. Count FORBIN also repeats the Catholic blunder of mistaking the grave included in the church, built by Saint Helena, for the holy burial-place. Only Dr. Clarke, of all the European travellers, has been permitted to kneel at the real tomb of Christ : which stands among those sepulchres of the house “ of the holy Zion,” as they are inscribed, where all the members of the Davidical family reposed together ; and where one tomb appears regularly hollowed in the rock, which had never immured its victim, the stone having been rolled away from the mouth of the sepulchre. This was certainly the scene of that great Resurrection, which will for ever agitate the hopes and fears of collective Christendom.

After having visited Jericho, the river Jordan, and other remarkable places in the neighbourhood of Jerusalem, Count FORBIN passes on to Damietta, in his way to the antiquities of Egypt. Our countrywoman, Lady Hester Stanhope, (daughter of the late Earl Stanhope,) is described as resident at Antoura, a small town at the foot of Mount Libanon. It is stated that her beneficence has so much attached the Bedoween Arabs, that, on her going to visit the ruins of Palmyra, they offered there to proclaim and acknowlege her as their
queen ;

queen: that she modestly refused this strange and perhaps dangerous sort of triumph: but that she continues her antiquarian researches, and has caused, at considerable expence, much of the drifted sands to be removed which covered the antient Askalon. The extortions of the Aga of Jaffa have checked this meritorious enterprize.

In this part of the tour, an Arabian tale is introduced, intitled the History of Ismael and Maryam. As it occupies four-and-twenty pages, it would be too long for us to quote with convenience, and it could not be separated or abridged with effect: but we recommend a translation of it to those Magazines which supply novel-readers with a monthly story, since it is interesting, pathetic, and composed with admirable truth of local colouring.

The lake Menzaleh is described by Count F. A new edifice has been erected on its shore, in which Genoese and Venetian sailors, who have been brought thither for that purpose, are constantly occupied in salting for the Mediterranean market the fish which are caught in this fruitful lake. M. Piozin, a Frenchman, is the director of this establishment, in which it has been judged necessary to interest Mohammed Aly, the Bashaw of Egypt. The salt-fish of Damietta will soon become celebrated in Europe.

Cairo is the next place visited. The Pyramids have lately been heaped on us in so many forms, that we shall at present leave these Pelions and Ossas to settle their stability unheeded. We may, however, observe that, in the concluding verse of the book of Genesis, it is stated that the body of Joseph was embalmed, and put in a *coffin* in Egypt. Now the word rendered *coffin* may signify a *tumulus*, and perhaps a pyramid; and it seems likely that the numerous descendants of Joseph, in concurrence with the vassals of the whole family of his brethren, should have made a great effort to build for him a mausoleum worthy of his social rank, and of his beneficence to them. Is it improbable that the task-work, exacted from the Israelites on that occasion, should have given rise to the plan of compulsory levies of labour among the graziers of Goshen, which, at length, was abused by the Pharaohs, and occasioned the Mosaic rebellion? On the most antient of the pyramids we should be inclined to fix as the real monument of Joseph; for, if any one had already been extant when the book of Genesis was written, (and the greater part of that book comes apparently from the hand of Joseph himself,) some mention would have occurred of so striking and important an edifice.

A notice

A notice occurs at p. 211. of the French Mamelukes settled in Egypt, which shews that the Parisian ministry for foreign affairs still keep in view the acquisition of that country.

Among the ruins of Thebes, (p. 263.) the author distinguished two colossal statues in a sitting posture, with the faces turned to the east. These seem to be the statues which Sesostris erected after the conquest of Æthiopia, (Herodotus, Euterpe, 110.) representing himself and his wife, and are probably the oldest specimens of sculptured portraiture now in being. On one of the pedestals may still be read the name of Germanicus, who thus recorded a pilgrimage of curiosity.

At p. 289. mention occurs of the death of M. *Royer*, a surgeon, to whom is ascribed the execution of an order to poison the wounded French soldiers at Jaffa.

We are told at p. 307. that the English are gradually reviving a great commerce with the East Indies over the isthmus of Suez; and that the house of Briggs at Alexandria has granted to Mohammed Aly a share in its profits, for the sake of the protection which he gives to their enterprising speculations.

An Appendix is attached to this volume, containing various classical dissertations relative to the monuments visited and described by Count FORBIN. These are illustrations, by European scholars, of the more remarkable topics of attention: of which the most interesting, perhaps, is an extract from the *Courier of Mount Mokatam*, giving many minute particulars of the discoveries of *Belzoni*.

An explanation of plates occurs at the end, specifying views of the principal curiosities mentioned and described in the text, which would, doubtless, be surveyed with amusement and instruction: but this illustrative volume has not reached us. An *Orbis pictus*, an engraved geography, containing views and plans of the principal cities of the world, and specific delineations of their more remarkable monuments, was executed on a modest scale at Venice during the splendor of that republic: but it begins to be time to collect and deposit on a more magnificent scale our present knowledge of the physiognomy of the world.

This work is dedicated, with permission, to the King of France, in a style of antient French adulation: while a somewhat melancholy tone overspreads the whole narrative, which confirms the hint given in the motto, that the desire of a remedy for low spirits induced the author to undertake his journey.

“*Moestus eram; requiesque mihi, non fama, petita est;
Mens intenta suis ne foret usque malis.*”

OVID. *Trist.* iv. 1.

ART. XIV. *Voyage Historique en Egypte, &c. ; i. e. Historical Travels in Egypt during the Campaigns of Generals Bonaparte, Kléber, and Ménou*, by DOMINIC DI PIETRO ; with a Map of Egypt, illustrative of the Route. 8vo. pp. 340. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 10s.

THE author of this tour, which, according to the title, is rather historical than geographical, was one of the soldiers who, in 1798, attended *Bonaparte* in his Egyptian expedition. He embarked on the 19th of May in that year, had the opportunity of landing at Malta, and towards the close of June was in garrison at Alexandria. Here General *Kléber* was left in command, and the author accompanied the detachment which proceeded to Cairo. The battle of the Pyramids having opened this city to the French, it was eagerly occupied, and is here described in a state of comparative integrity, previously to the devastation which subsequent difficulties occasioned.

In the second book, the author marches under the gallant but ill-fated *Desaix* into Upper Egypt, and relates the various difficulties of the expedition. Faioum and Siouth are described : but the chief attention of the writer is concentrated, not on the antiquities, which attract only a passing attention, but on the motions of Morad Bey, and the other hostile authorities. The army continued to ascend the Nile to Girgeh, Tentyra, Thebes, Esneh, and at length to Syene : — but it soon became necessary to return ; and the warfare now shifted to the eastern side of the Nile, and gave occasion to several skirmishes at Benout and Keneh. From this place to Cosseir, a frequented road exists. At Keneh, General *Desaix* was re-joined by the corps to which the author first belonged.

Book III. describes those military achievements of which Lower Egypt was the theatre : but, as these form a part of the campaign much better known, and already narrated in detail, M. PIETRO is comparatively rapid in his survey. Some observations occur on the treaty of El-Arish, which was concluded between Sir Sidney Smith and General *Kléber* ; and it is here contended (see pp. 200. and 201.) that our Admiral, Lord Keith, violated this agreement in a manner not correctly defensible.

The fourth and concluding book gives an account of the evacuation of Egypt ; and some curious notes are added, from which (p. 337.) we will extract an anecdote.

‘ Among the traits of regard which the virtues of General *Desaix* excited from the inhabitants of Upper Egypt, one does too much honour to his memory to be passed over in silence. In the number of the Egyptians whom his affability of character had attached to his person, was a person named Maller

After
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the battle of the Pyramids, this young man abandoned the fortunes of Morad Bey to adopt those of our General, followed *Desaix* through the whole campaign of Upper Egypt, and partook the perils and glories of his success. When the news of the death of *Desaix* at the battle of Marengo had been widely circulated, Mallem Jacob wrote to General *Ménou*, stating that, if the French government meant to erect a monument in Egypt to the memory of that lamented officer, he would subscribe one-third of the sum which should be consecrated to this pious office. This is, perhaps, the first instance of a native of a conquered country being willing to sacrifice his private property in erecting a trophy to the glory of the conqueror.'

Military men may study this book with some advantage; and it is a necessary document for those who are engaged in relating the history of the wars of the French Revolution, since it throws light on the manners of the Egyptians, and on the characters of many acting chieftains. It forms, indeed, apparently the best account which we have yet seen of the French campaign in Upper Egypt. Antiquarian students, however, will find nothing in it to reward their attention.

ART. XV. *Histoire Métallique de Napoleon, &c.; i. e. A Metallic History of Napoleon, or Collection of Medals and Coins, which have been struck from the first Campaign of the Army of Italy to his Abdication in 1815.* 4to. pp. 120. Sold by Treuttel and Würtz, London. 1819. Price 3l. 13s. 6d.

THE late Chevalier *Millin* had undertaken, and began in the year 1806 to publish, a metallic history of the French Revolution; containing a description and graphic delineation of all the medals and coins which had been struck at the expence of the government, from the convocation of the States-General in 1789 to the first Italian campaign of *Bonaparte* in 1796. In the preface to that work, the author announced his intention to continue the publication on the same plan, and in a second part to illustrate the Italian and German campaigns of Napoleon. The death of M. *Millin*, however, fatally interrupted his task; and the revolution of 1814, by restoring the antient dynasty, rendered unwelcome in France the consecration of splendid volumes to the display of Bonapartean achievements. Hence the anonymous author of the volume before us, who in fact edits what M. *Millin* had in a great degree prepared, has chosen to print his book in London: but the plates were executed at Paris from select specimens of the respective coins. As this publication is intended to complete the Metallic History of the French Revolution,

“Ambition sigh’d: she found it vain to trust
The faithless column and the crumbling bust;
Huge moles, whose shadows stretch’d from shore to shore,
Their ruins perish’d and their place no more;
Convinc’d, she now contracts her vast design,
And all her triumphs sink into a coin. —
The medal, faithful to its charge of fame,
Through climes and ages bears each form and name;
In one short view subjected to our eye,
Gods, Emperors, Heroes, Sages, Beauties lie.” *Pope.*

Our readers would value little any extracts from the critical catalogue, as we cannot lay before them engravings of the objects described: but this and the connected volume, previously published in 1806, will form a splendid ornament to the historical library, and will induce many purchasers to attempt the collection of a complete series of the medals themselves. Bronze or copper specimens of the principal pieces struck at Paris have not been difficult to obtain, and are eminently beautiful, but are becoming scarcer and dearer.

ART. XVI. *Callimachi Hymni et Epigrammata, in Usus Lectionum edidit, et Indice philologico instruxit, H. F. M. VOLGER, Philosophiæ Doctor.* 8vo. pp. 160. Lipsiæ. 1818. London. J. Porter.

BAD German paper, and a crowded arrangement of a well-formed type, are the most striking features of this edition of Callimachus: but an alphabetical index, or rather lexicon, is appended to it, containing biographical, mythological, and etymological explanations. *Loësner's* edition having become scarce, the present has been supplied at the instigation of the bookseller who was most interested, and it professes to be more enlarged and accurate. The Latin version has been omitted, and some trouble has been taken in obtaining a correct text. The preface tells us that the editorial labours of M. VOLGER will shortly be seen in an impression of this same author, rising superior to the character of a common school-book.

ART. XVII. *Quinti Curtii Rufi de Rebus Gestis Alexandri Magni Macedonum Regis, Libri X. Textum denuo recognovit, insigniorem Lectionis varietatem et brevem Commentarium perpetuum, Supplementis Freinsheimii et Indice rerum apposis, adjecit JOH. CHR. KOKEN, Scholæ Holzmindensis Director.* 8vo. pp. 450. Lipsiæ. 1818. London. J. Porter.

THIS edition of Quintus Curtius proceeds from the same press with the Callimachus just noticed: the paper is equally bad, and the typography is equally close. It forms
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the eighth volume of a series of the Latin historians now publishing at Leipsic; which, if the weather be favourable, or the building in which the materials are deposited be well secured from wet, may possibly be brought to a conclusion: but, if the slightest shower of rain should penetrate to the paper, whole reams of it would inevitably fall a sacrifice, before assistance could be procured. The volume contains the supplements as well as the work, and some notes; which, although not very numerous, are in themselves useful. The purpose of the edition, notwithstanding the manifesto that it forms a portion of a grand '*Corpus historicorum Latinorum*,' is probably to furnish an useful school-book for some of the seminaries over which the editors preside.

ART. XVIII. *Les Proscrits, &c.; i. e. The Exiles, or the Protestant Family*, by Madame L. R. DE BACRE. 3 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 12s.

TWO or three distinct stories are here related, and the writer's chief artifice for exciting interest seems to consist in bringing one set of personages into danger and leaving them unassisted, while, in a new chapter, the reader is made to follow another party into similar perils. We might be considered as leading our own readers into difficulties, if we recommended this book as likely to afford them much amusement.

ART. XIX. *Petit Tableau de Paris, &c.; i. e. A Brief Sketch of Paris for 1818*. By Madame DE SARTORY, Author of "*The Duke de Lauzun*," &c. Vol. I. 12mo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 4s.

WE are here presented with many anecdotes and *bon-mots* which, if not new, are entertaining; and the whole is written with sufficient life and grace to excite our impatience for a continuation of the tale and remarks in another volume.

ART. XX. *Eugénie, &c.; i. e. Eugenia, or the Calendar of Youth*, containing Twelve Tales for the Twelve Months of the Year. By Madame DE FLAMANVILLE. 12mo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 4s.

THOUGH bearing no marks of brilliant genius or fertile invention, these tales may afford some harmless amusement to young French readers.

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